

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 3, 1883.

## The Week.

INLAND navigation on the lakes and rivers has been practically reopened within the past week, and may be expected to impart increased activity to business. Foreign immigration is increasing, and, in connection with it, there is a larger immigration than was ever known before from Canada to the new Northwest, passing through Chicago and other Western points. The condition of the winter wheat crop has been greatly improved during the past fortnight, and the progress of seeding for the spring wheat crop has been very satisfactory. On the whole, the prospect for a full average crop of wheat has improved at least 5 to 8 per cent. The troubles between owners and employees in the Western iron mills have not been settled, but there are indications of concessions on the part of manufacturers which may possibly yet avert a strike. There is, however, still so wide a difference of view that it is doubtful if it can be overcome. Financially, the past week has presented no special feature except the increasing demand, both in this country and in Europe, for first-class railroad bonds. Within the past ten days several of the most important loans ever put out by railroad corporations (including some which have been in process of negotiation for several years) have been either finally absorbed by the public, or bid for by syndicates of bankers who desire them to supply the public demand. Among these may be mentioned the last \$10,000,000 of the Northern Pacific bonds; \$3,000,000 of Union Pacific bonds; \$5,000,000 of proposed New York, New Haven and Hartford bonds; and \$3,000,000 of the Oregon and California bonds. Altogether there have been at least \$25,000,000 of railroad bonds taken by syndicates of bankers in ten days. The money market has continued well supplied, both here and in Europe, but the demand for either investment or speculation does not seem to extend to the stock market yet, and prices of railway stocks are lower than a week ago.

The following very extraordinary resolution has passed the Massachusetts Senate and is now before the Lower House of the Legislature:

"In view of the great services of Oakes Ames—representative from the Massachusetts Second Congressional District for ten years ending March 4, 1873—in achieving the construction of the Union Pacific Railroad, the most vital contribution to the integrity and growth of the national Union since the war; in view of his unflinching truthfulness and honesty, which refused to suppress in his own or any other interest any fact, and so made him the victim of an intense and misdirected public excitement, and of a vote of censure by the Forty-second Congress at the close of its session; and in view of the later deliberate public sentiment, which, upon a review of all the facts and especially since the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States vindicating him and the *Crédit Mobilier* of America of any fraud on the Government, holds him in an esteem irre-

concilable with his condemnation, and which, throughout the whole country, recognizes the value and patriotism of his achievement and his innocence of corrupt motive or conduct; therefore, the Legislature of Massachusetts hereby expresses its gratitude for his work and its faith in his integrity of purpose and character, and asks for a like recognition thereof on the part of the national Congress."

The *Crédit Mobilier* scandals of 1873 are no longer quite as fresh in the memory of men as they once were, but they are fresh enough not to permit anybody, not even the Legislature of so respectable a State as Massachusetts, to confuse people's minds about their character. The resolution above quoted tries to persuade us that those who were censured for their participation in the *Crédit Mobilier* affair were the "victims of an intense and misdirected public excitement." But when it is remembered that the excitement was directed against the practice of influencing the votes of Congressmen by distributing valuable securities among them, "where they would do the most good," it will also be remembered that the public excitement was not misdirected at all, and that it would do the country an immense deal of good if we could have such an excitement in every similar case.

The resolution is undoubtedly intended to soothe the feelings and to burnish over the escutcheon of the family of a man who did many good and useful things, and who possessed many excellent traits of character, but who, in order to carry his ends, used means calculated to demoralize our public life in a very dangerous manner. The resolution extols Oakes Ames for having "achieved the construction of the Union Pacific Railroad, the most vital contribution to the integrity and growth of the national Union since the war." Nobody denies that Oakes Ames did very much toward that end. Nobody censured him for having carried out a great public work, but he was censured for the means he used in doing it. The resolution extols his "unflinching truthfulness and honesty, which refused to suppress, in his own or any other interest, any fact." Everybody respects that unflinching truthfulness, and nobody denies that he possessed it. But he has been censured because that truthfulness compelled him to admit that he had used corrupt means to create certain prepossessions in the Congressional mind. Oakes Ames was a business man of great enterprise and energy, who, in his eagerness to accomplish great results, occasionally failed to remember that the moral tone of our public life is a matter of much higher consequence than even a great railroad. Nobody will find fault with his family and his friends who, in view of his many excellent qualities, take a charitable view of his failings, and commend that charitable view to the general public. But they make a mistake if they treat this as a mere family affair, and at the same time challenge public sentiment all over the country with regard to it.

General Crook's expedition against the hostile Apaches seems to have come to a dead halt

at the Mexican border. Some time ago we were informed that an understanding had been arrived at between the Government of the United States and that of the Mexican Republic, in pursuance of which, in case of hostile Indians passing the line between the two countries, our troops might cross into Mexico or Mexican troops into the United States, in pursuit of them. As is their custom, the hostile Apaches who recently committed so many murders in Arizona sought shelter on Mexican territory as soon as our troops moved upon them. General Crook then organized an expedition with a view to following them across the Mexican line and destroying them in their places of refuge, in accordance with the understanding above mentioned. But at the frontier he is arrested by an order from Washington which bids him stop. And now we learn that Señor Romero, the Mexican Minister, has "put himself in telegraphic communication with his Government with reference to the representations made to him by Secretary Frelinghuysen, on the subject of obtaining consent for United States troops to cross the Mexican border in pursuit of raiding Indians." From this it would appear that, if there is any understanding, as above mentioned, at all, it is worthless in effect as to the present emergency. The Apaches are in the habit of moving about briskly, and if a campaign against them is to be subject in its progress to diplomatic negotiations with the Mexican Government, the savages may laugh at their pursuers. Mr. Romero does not seem to be in any hurry about the matter, since he expresses himself in favor of correspondence by letter with his Government in preference to using the telegraph more than he has done already. And inasmuch as his letters will not reach the city of Mexico for two or three weeks, and the Mexican Senate, upon whose consent the arrangement seems to depend, will then be ready to adjourn, he sees no prospect of doing anything this season. It is not clear, however, why under such circumstances General Crook was permitted to start on his expedition at all.

In the meantime another phase of the "Indian trouble" is illustrated by another kind of savages. While General Crook is on the Mexican border, the "Tombstone Rangers," an organization of white ruffians, seem to have resumed their scheme of "wiping out" the peaceable Apaches on the San Carlos reservation. United States troops have been placed there to protect the Indians, and the Indians have also been organized and armed to defend themselves. It is expected that, if the "Tombstone Rangers" really venture to make an attack upon the reservation Indians, the latter, with the aid of United States troops, will "make it hot" for them. Thus we have the singular spectacle of an expedition of soldiers, reinforced by Indian scouts, organized for the pursuit of Indian marauders, and at the same time another defensive organization of peaceable Indians, reinforced by United States soldiers, against an attack by white ruffians.

Dr. George M. Beard, who died in this city, was, it was well known, an agnostic, or, as he called himself, a "scientist," and was generally supposed to have remained so till his death. He had, however, a Moravian woman for a nurse in his last illness, who seems to have since fallen into the way of Mr. Joseph Cook, the Boston "Monday Lectureship," just as he was getting his facts and illustrations ready for a "prelude." She told him that Dr. Beard had died a believer; that in his last moments she had said to him, "Trust in Jesus!" and that he had answered promptly, "I do—I am"; and that subsequently he had risen up in bed, and exclaimed "Higher, higher," which the nurse reported as a pious ejaculation. This was enough for Mr. Cook, who is always as receptive as a little child when he is preparing a prelude, and it is right to add that it was probably as good evidence as that on which nine-tenths of his discourses are based. He accordingly dressed up the Moravian woman's story in the following characteristic fashion, apparently without the slightest inquiry or verification:

"When Dr. George M. Beard lay dying in New York city, a devout Moravian said to him: 'Trust in Jesus.' With unimpaired faculties, he answered: 'I do. I AM.' Immediately after this he rose up in bed and lifted up his hand, his face brightened and he said with great emphasis: 'Higher! HIGHER!' and, in a few seconds, passed into that trance from which no man or angel could waken him."

Now come the family of the deceased gentleman, who were around his bedside at the last moment, as well as a friend, and testify that he was then almost completely deaf, and had been so for some time, as the result of his disease. He could only be made to hear through an ear-trumpet, if at all. No such exhortation to him as the Moravian nurse reports herself as having made was heard by any one else in the room, or could have been heard by him. His last words were, "Higher, higher," which were taken to mean, as he was suffering from difficulty of breathing, that he should be raised up in bed, and he was so raised, and he confirmed the interpretation put upon them by adding "That will do," when he had got into the right position. In that position he died without another word, so that the Moravian nurse seems to have drawn on her imagination. Dr. Beard continued, as long as he was able to converse, an agnostic, and, all his friends say, so died.

The *Independent*, which made an article out of Mr. Cook's story, now withdraws it, and adds:

"If the collapse of this story of death-bed conversion shall do anything to prevent the abuse of the great truth, that so long as moral power exists there is the theoretical possibility of conversion and salvation—whether in health, or sickness, or death, whether on earth, or in purgatory, or in hell—we shall be glad."

This is all very good, as far as it goes, but it does not go far enough. What "the collapse of this story of death-bed conversion" ought to check is not simply "the abuse of a great truth," but plain falsehood, and the reckless conversion of signs and wonders into moral pabulum. Truthfulness, strict truthfulness, and careful examination of facts, are the lesson of this collapse

for all preludemongers, lectureships, and other moral and religious teachers. The value of truth, its supreme, overwhelming importance, is the lesson of every death-bed, and is furnished by that of an agnostic or scientist, as well as by that of a Christian. On this point Mr. Cook's teaching is of vastly more consequence, to himself at all events, than his opinion as to the exact limits of probation.

The Rev. Anna Oliver, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, informed her congregation in Willoughby Avenue, Brooklyn, on Sunday, that, owing to the steady refusal of the denomination to recognize her or her church on account of her sex, she was going to give up her ministrations. The occasion seems, however, to have been by no means a sorrowful one, for she was able to make an excellent statement of her affairs from a purely mundane point of view. She had bought the church from the mortgagees for \$13,000 in 1879, and had made it pay its expenses ever since "without fairs, raffles, or worldly entertainments," but owing to this difficulty about her sex it was now determined to sell it. The trustees told her that she might keep whatever she could get over and above the mortgage of \$13,000. So, being apparently an able business woman, she has sold for \$18,000, which gives her \$5,000 in cash, and it is not surprising to hear, under these circumstances, that her only plan as yet for the future "is to take a vacation." We need hardly say that she is going to Europe, therefore, after a "month's rest and literary work," seeing and "studying" England on her way, and then going straight to Jerusalem by way of Florence.

The Irish National League completed its organization on Friday and adopted a platform. This document consists, as was natural, in what is called at political conventions an "arraignment" of England, embodied in language of extreme violence and exaggeration, so that on a moderate computation only about half of its charges are true, and some of the worst of them—such as having practised on the Irish "every form of cruelty known to the lowest savage"—must refer to a very early period in modern history, when Irishmen themselves had not by any means acquired that gentleness and magnanimity in their treatment of enemies for which they are now distinguished. It is needless to say that a calmer and more accurate statement of the Irish case against Englishmen—the terrible strength of which the best Englishmen acknowledge with much penitence—would have been more effective with the world at large. But this was not drawn up for the world at large. It was drawn up for the 2,000,000 Irishmen and Irishwomen now in this country, who are to furnish the new League with its funds and support, and who like their rhetoric both hot and strong, and, in fact, would have been much disgusted if their representatives had denounced the oppressor in moderate language. As it is, the platform is, however, not much more violent, if any, than an old-fashioned Democratic arraignment of the Republican party during the war, or a Republican rehearsal of Democratic doings at

the South during the "outrage" period. The fifth plank, which purports to give some account of the anomalies in the present government of Ireland, is the only one which makes any approach to sobriety or accuracy, or which a foreigner can read with any profit.

The objects of the new League, as described in the constitution, are as near being practical as those of such an organization established on foreign soil, three thousand miles from the country it is intended to benefit, can be expected to be—the instruction of the American public about Irish grievances, the encouragement of Irish manufactures, and of the cultivation of the Irish language and music, the "boycotting" of English manufactures, and the "abolition of sectional feeling" among Irishmen. The thing which would perhaps have done most to conciliate or win over American opinion about Ireland, was some formal and emphatic repudiation of the policy of murder and outrage, but this was, we are sorry to say, omitted. The only allusion to the murder cases now pending in Ireland consisted simply in the old-fashioned denunciations of the judge, jury, witnesses, and police which Americans read with so much pain. The dynamite men were kept in the background, but apparently only as a matter of too thinly-disguised policy.

The puzzle to which we have more than once referred, presented by the attitude of the Irish Catholic conscience towards murder and murderers, was increased considerably, recently, by the statement of Father Walsh, a priest who has acted as Treasurer of the Land League in this country. He reported that he had transmitted \$376 to the Widow Walsh, one of whose sons was hanged and the other sentenced to penal servitude for life for murder, under Mr. Parnell's advice, who believed in their innocence. Father Walsh then added that Mrs. Walsh not only knew her boys to be innocent, but knew who committed the murder for which they suffered, but would not tell, preferring to let her children be hanged to turning informer, as "some ignoble villains" were now doing. What we should like to know is, whether a Catholic clergyman can really approve of a mother's allowing her son to go to the gallows for a crime he did not commit, sooner than point out the real perpetrators to the officers of the law—no matter whose law; and whether he thinks no bloodguiltiness rests on that mother's head. If this woman is a good Catholic, and her conduct in this matter be in accordance with what Irish Catholics consider the duties of good citizenship, we imagine there are very few persons outside the Land League who would care to live in a state in which Mrs. Walsh's style of patriotism was at all common.

The last deliverance of the *London Times* on the Irish question is both melancholy and instructive reading. In fact, it explains in a few words how there ever came to be an Irish question. It says, apropos of the Irish Convention:

"The only practical suggestion made by the Convention for injuring Great Britain is the advice to the people of Ireland to buy nothing from

England unless they are obliged to. It is a confession of impotence when Irish malice is driven to such a paltry expedient, which, if tried, would only injure its adopters. The lesson for Great Britain is to ignore Irishmen, and abandon the hope of bringing them to a better frame of mind by a continuance of unmerited favors. They have already convinced the rest of the world that they are unfit to have national independence, and they must be made to feel the strong hand of the law."

It is talk like this on the part of Englishmen, begun two hundred years ago, and used in reply to every Irish demand, beginning with the demand for the commonest civil rights, which has produced the Ireland of to-day, and which has begotten that passionate hatred of English rule which every race that has ever lived under it, even when it was wisest and most humane, has felt—the Dutch of the Cape of Good Hope, Protestant and Teutonic though they be, just as deeply as the Connaught peasantry. It is the kind of talk which every man of every such race, when he can do no better, feels inclined to answer with the bullet and the knife and the bomb. It is the kind of talk, too, which the *Times* contributes to nearly every controversy in which England happens to be engaged with a people from whom it thinks she has nothing to fear. It is not more insulting or exasperating than most of the articles on American affairs in the years 1861-3, but it is less statesmanlike, because the American trouble was very near solution, while the Irish one, we fear, is not.

Mr. Thompson, a Congressman from Kentucky, has been killing a man named Davis. His wife has been given to drunkenness, and hearing that she had been behaving improperly with Davis, at a hotel where he had left her, the opportunity of doing a little killing seemed to him to be too tempting to be lost. So he prepared to shoot Davis "on sight," and, seeing him in the train, he shot him accordingly, and the body rolled off on the track. He then returned and surrendered himself to the court, with a beautiful and pathetic speech. This little affair recalls to the local press the tragedy of six years ago, when Thompson was Prosecuting Attorney at Harrodsburg. The Thompsons had had a long family feud with the Davises over a lawsuit. So, being all in court together at the trial of the case, they fell to, and old Philip Thompson, young Philip (the present slayer), and another son, killed old Davies and his two sons—so to speak, *coram judge*.

But the Kentucky papers begin to doubt whether Thompson was justified in shooting Davis under any code, or, in other words, whether Davis had done him any injury. The evidence in Thompson's possession, at all events, seems to have been of the flimsiest sort, and he committed the murder some days after he had heard of the offence. In short, taking the best view, he acted in cold blood as judge, jury, and executioner in his own case, without hearing the accused. It is no answer to this to say that "his manners are easy, and in walk and conversation he is as gentle as a woman," or that "he is the gamest little man that ever trod in shoe-leather," or that "he rode into the thickest of the fight in Morgan's cavalry "

when only seventeen, or that "Phil Thompson would not have done this deed if he did not sincerely believe that he was an outraged man." That may be, but things would come to a pretty pass in a civilized country if everybody who "sincerely believed" that you had outraged him in some way was allowed to kill you on sight. Even if Phil Thompson is to be allowed to do his own killing, he ought at least to take testimony first, and hear the prisoner. We suspect that the remark of the old Scotch Judge, Lord Braxton, to the culprit who made a very fine speech in his own defence, is not wholly inapplicable to Phil Thompson's case: "You're a vera clever chiel, mon, but ye'll be nane the waur of a wee bit hangin'."

The unexpectedly large vote in the House of Commons in opposition to the grants to Lord Wolseley and Lord Alcester, for their services in the Egyptian campaign, shows that the hostility to Jingoism has by no means died out, and that, in fact, it gains ground. However justifiable the war in Egypt may have been, the victory over Arabi was not a remarkable one, either by sea or land. His defence was of the most feeble kind, and yet the rewards bestowed on the General and Admiral who overcame it are almost as great as Wellington received for driving the French out of Spain when Napoleon was in the height of his power. As a matter of fact Wellington was not raised to the peerage till many years after his wonderfully brilliant campaign against the Mahrattas, including the battle of Assaye, in which, on open ground, with a force of 4,500 men, of which only half were British, he drove 50,000 Mahrattas, with 100 guns, from the field; nor till after he had opened the Peninsular campaign by defeating Laborde at Rolica, and Junot at Vimero and Talavera. The *Spectator* defends the large grant of money in these cases—the equivalent, in an annuity for two lives, of \$150,000—on the ground mainly that the ordinary compensation given to soldiers and sailors is small, and that men could not be induced to endure the monotony and poverty of the military service in time of peace if the war prizes were not large. But on the other hand large war prizes furnish a powerful stimulus to Jingoism among the very influential class in England from which naval and military officers are still drawn, and account in a considerable degree for the ridiculous worship which the Tories are now offering to the memory of Lord Beaconsfield.

It is now reported from Berlin that the attack upon our Minister, Mr. Sargent, by the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung* will probably not result in Mr. Sargent's resignation or his withdrawal from Germany by this Government. We do not see why it should, for Mr. Sargent did no more than what would be expected of every faithful diplomatic representative. The difficulty arose not from the fact that he had written a despatch displeasing to Prince Bismarck, but from the publication of that despatch. This occurrence should, therefore, serve as another reminder to the State Department of the necessity of carefully examining the despatches of our ministers before

they are printed, for the purpose of striking out from them passages which might embarrass our diplomatic agents in their relations with the governments to which they are accredited. Unless this be done our ministers will not only get into all sorts of disagreeable situations without any necessity, but—and this will be a far more serious evil—they will, in order to avoid being thrown out of their places, be naturally inclined carefully to abstain from writing to the Secretary of State anything the publication of which might result in unpleasant feelings, and therefore not be as truthful and outspoken as they ought to be. In other words, their principal usefulness, which consists in giving correct information to their Government, will be very materially impaired. It is evident that ministers who report only what it would be pleasant for the foreign governments to hear will be of no use. They must therefore be assured that they can count upon the discretion of the State Department, so as not to be put in danger of losing their places by indiscreet publications if they report what is not pleasant for the foreign governments to hear.

After much bargaining and haggling, the Porte has finally consented to the demand of Austria-Hungary that Vranja, at the southern extremity of Serbia, should become the point of junction for the Serbian railway to be built under Austrian auspices and a branch of the Turkish railway now running from Salonica, on the Aegean Sea, in a straight line to Mitrovitza, in the Sanjak of Novi Bazar. The Serbian railway is to begin at Belgrade, on the Danube, where it will connect with the Austro-Hungarian lines of communication, and run through the valley of the Morava to the aforesaid extremity of the kingdom, where this borders on both Turkey proper and Bulgaria. Austria-Hungary was anxious to have a connecting branch leading from Vranja to Uskup, on the Varder, which would have been the shortest and least expensive link; but the Porte insisted on making the connection further north, between Mitrovitza or Prishtina in Turkey, and Alexinatz or Leskovatz in Serbia. Such a northern line would leave the strategically important pass at the Kara Mountain unpenetrated by Austro-Serbian locomotives. The negotiations threatened to become interminable, but the Austro-Hungarian Minister to the Porte succeeded in making the latter accept a proposition which saves her military scruples, but also half satisfies the other contracting parties. The connecting line is to be carried from Vranja, but, instead of to Uskup, to Prishtina, north of the strategic pass and of the battle-field of Kosovo Polye, famous in Turkish history. This arrangement makes the future great railway line between the Danube and the Aegean about sixty miles longer than it ought to be, but it gives Serbia a commercial artery extending throughout the entire length of the country, and carries the direct influence of Austria-Hungary to a point in the Balkan Peninsula more southerly even than the south frontier of Bosnia, and situated on the flank of Bulgaria, where Russia's influence predominates.

## SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 25, to TUESDAY, May 1, 1883, inclusive.]

## DOMESTIC.

At Horticultural Hall, in Philadelphia, on Wednesday, the long-talked-of Land League Convention was called to order. About 800 delegates were present, and gave enthusiastic attention to the day's proceedings. Frank Byrne, Patrick Egan, and Mrs. Parnell were among those present. President James A. Mooney, of Buffalo, delivered the opening address, in which he strongly endorsed the course of Charles Stewart Parnell, expressed extreme confidence in Patrick Egan's disposal of the League funds, and stated the object of the proposed reorganization of the League. The address was well received. After a long debate, which was at times disorderly, a committee was appointed to furnish a plan for the merging of the Land League with the National League, and after their report a resolution was passed providing for an adjournment of the Land League *sine die* if the National Convention should agree to their plan of reorganization.

On Thursday the Irish-American National Convention assembled in the same hall, about twice as many delegates being present. At 12 o'clock Alexander Sullivan, a young Chicago lawyer, delivered the opening address, which consisted mainly in appeals to Irish sentiment and passion. The Rev. Maurice J. Dorney, of Chicago, was made temporary Chairman. There was considerable disorder during the time when the organization was being perfected, and there were objections to the methods by which the nominations were made and carried. At the afternoon session a telegram from Mr. Parnell was read, in which he said: "I would respectfully advise that your platform should be so framed as to enable us to continue to accept help from America, and at the same time avoid affording a pretext to the British Government for entirely suppressing the national movement in Ireland. In this way only can unity of movement be preserved, both in Ireland and America." On Friday afternoon the Committee on Resolutions made a report, which was adopted with few dissenting votes. The platform arraigns the British Government for misrule; pledges the unqualified support of the League to their countrymen in Ireland in their efforts to recover national self-government; urges upon Irish farmers the cause of the laborers; recommends that Irishmen purchase nothing from England which they can produce at home or buy from America or France; condemns the English Liberal Ministry; and approves Patrick Egan's course as Treasurer of the Land League. A plan of organization was adopted which stated the objects of the Irish National League of America to be, to sustain the League in Ireland; to procure a clearer understanding by the American people of the Irish question; to promote the development of Irish manufactures by encouraging their import into the United States; to encourage the study of the Irish language, music, and art; to "boycott" English manufactures, and to abolish all sectional feeling of province and creed. Alexander Sullivan was elected permanent President. (He killed Francis Hanford in Chicago in 1876 for slandering his wife, and was acquitted on a second trial.) A national committee, which elected an executive committee, was appointed, and the Convention adjourned.

Upon the recommendation of the Civil-Service Commission, President Arthur on Wednesday appointed Randolph De B. Keim, of Pennsylvania, to be Chief Examiner of that Commission. Mr. Keim was selected out of a large number of applicants. He had the recommendations of a great many politicians, many of them pronounced "Stalwarts." He has been a Washington correspondent of considerable success, but has always devoted his energies to the cause of the Stalwarts, and

has been an enthusiastic supporter of the Camerons and General Grant. On Tuesday a long letter from Dorman B. Eaton, one of the Commissioners, was published in defence of the appointment.

W. W. White, of Atlanta, Ga., was appointed secretary of the Civil-Service Commission on Wednesday. He is a friend of Dr. Gregory, one of the Commissioners, and a college classmate of his son. The latter had been selected to take charge of Mr. White's business while he was acting as secretary. It was immediately telegraphed to certain newspapers that Mr. White's nomination was a mere subterfuge to cover a good position for young Gregory. Mr. White thereupon telegraphed his resignation, asserting that he would not permit his name to embarrass the Commission or Dr. Gregory. He said that he accepted the place only for the public good, as his business in Atlanta is worth \$500 a month, while the salary of secretary is \$1,600 per year.

Secretary Folger on Wednesday decided that granulated rice is liable to duty only at 20 per cent. ad valorem as an article manufactured in whole or in part. He also decided the long-contested petty appointment of Gilbert against Wright to be Deputy Collector of the port of Chicago in favor of Gilbert, confirming the removal of Wright by Collector Spalding. This will be considered a personal affront by both Senators Logan and Cullom, who have made common cause in insisting that Wright should be retained.

An important band of counterfeiters was arrested in this city on Saturday, charged with making and circulating spurious trade and Bland silver dollars.

General Green B. Raum, Commissioner of Internal Revenue, tendered his resignation to the President on Saturday, to take effect on April 30. He desires to engage in a more remunerative private law practice.

Mr. Ker's speech for the Government in the Star-route trial was continued without any particular incident on Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday, being concluded on the last-named day. Counsel for Miner and Vaile offered to submit their cases without further argument. The offer was refused, and Mr. Bliss began to speak for the Government on Monday, continuing on Tuesday in a very caustic vein.

Ex-President Rutherford B. Hayes, and the Board of Trustees of the John F. Slater educational fund, of which Mr. Hayes is President, met in this city on Wednesday to hear the report of the Rev. A. G. Haygood, of Georgia, the general agent of the fund. The report was submitted on Thursday. It was incomplete, and no action was taken upon it. The Board decided to initiate their work by an appropriation of \$20,000, to be expended under the direction of Dr. Haygood during the year 1883. The aid is to be given to such schools as are best fitted to prepare young colored men and women to become useful to their race, and it is recommended that they be taught some manual occupation simultaneously with their mental and moral instruction. The Board adjourned to meet in October.

Governor Cleveland on Friday nominated W. H. Murtha, of Brooklyn, for Emigration Commissioner, and Willis S. Paine, of New York, for Bank Superintendent. Mr. Murtha is a Democrat, and was State Senator in 1880. Mr. Paine is a lawyer of ability, and was one of the commissioners who recently compiled the Banking Laws of the State. There were three Court of Claims Commissioners nominated at the same time. All the nominations were immediately confirmed by the Senate, with the exception of the first. The Tammany men refuse to accept Mr. Murtha.

At Albany, on Wednesday, the Senate, by a vote of 15 to 7, took from the table the adverse report of the Railroad Committee on the Anti-Free-Pass Bill, and committed the bill to the Committee of the Whole. On that day

Governor Cleveland returned to the Assembly, without approval, the bill for the relief of the surviving members of the First Regiment of New York Mexican Volunteers. It provides for the payment of \$12 per month in quarterly payments for two years to every person who shall appear on due evidence to have been a member of the regiment referred to, and appropriated for this purpose \$14,976. The Governor is by no means certain that the legislation thus proposed involves correct principles, or that the appeal upon which it rests should be answered by favorable action. A motion in the Assembly on Thursday to pass the bill over the Governor's veto was lost by a vote of 65 to 45. In the Senate on that day the bill regulating the charges of elevating grain at Buffalo and other points was lost by a vote of 15 to 13, not a constitutional majority. It was a great disappointment to the canal men who supported the free-canal amendment. The Apportionment Bill was passed in the Senate on Friday by 19 to 8. In the Assembly the bill increasing the number of Surrogates in New York city from one to three was ordered to a third reading. The Keyes General Street Railroad Bill was passed, after having been amended so as to exempt Lexington Avenue in this city from the provisions of the act, and protecting existing railroads from interference as to rates. Tuesday was an active day in both branches of the Legislature. In the Senate the Prohibitory Amendment was lost by a vote of 13 to 18; the New York Aqueduct Bill was passed, 19 to 10; the Ramapo Water Supply Bill was passed, 19 to 1; and the bill for the protection of birds, fish, and game was defeated. In the Assembly the bill for the reorganization of the Dock Department of this city was defeated by a combination of Republicans and Tammany Democrats, after it had been so amended by Republican and Anti-Tammany votes as to give the Mayor the sole power of appointing the one Commissioner. In the evening the Assembly ordered to a third reading the State Civil-Service Reform Bill, but refused by a large majority to take up the bill establishing civil-service rules for this city.

Charges of heresy were preferred on Wednesday against the Rev. R. Heber Newton, Rector of All Souls' Protestant Episcopal Church, of this city, based on his sermons delivered last winter, on "The Right and Wrong Uses of the Bible." They were presented to Bishop Potter by the Rev. Dr. Buell, the Rev. Randolph H. McKim, and the Rev. Dr. E. F. De Costa.

A dinner was given to the great Italian actor, Salvini, at the Hotel Brunswick, in this city, on Thursday evening, by more than one hundred representative citizens of New York.

A strip of territory nearly one hundred miles wide, and extending nearly across Texas from northeast to southwest, was visited by a great storm of wind, hail, and rain, assuming the severity of a cyclone, on Friday night, doing great damage to crops, buildings, and property generally, and killing and wounding many people.

Philip B. Thompson, jr., killed Walter Davis at Harrodsburg Junction, Ky., on Friday morning. Thompson is a member of the next Congress. Davis had sold out his grocery and was on his way to Chicago when Thompson saw him. A scuffle ensued. Davis started to leave the cars, when Thompson pulled out a pistol and shot him. Davis was a wealthy man, and Thompson accused him of the seduction of the latter's wife. Both lived at Harrodsburg. After the shooting, Thompson returned to Harrodsburg, and going into court made a statement of the wrongs which led to the homicide. He was bailed for \$5,000. His wife says that Davis was innocent, and she only wanted opportunity to prove it.

Rear-Admiral Edward Middleton, United States Navy (retired), died at his residence in Washington on Friday evening. He was born

in South Carolina, and entered the naval service July 1, 1828.

General William Browne, professor in the Georgia State University, died in Athens, Ga., on Saturday. He had a position in the British diplomatic service, but when thirty years of age came to America, and for a time was a journalist in this city and Washington. He was Assistant Secretary of State of the Confederate Government under Robert Toombs, and afterward went on Davis's staff as General of Georgia's conscript forces. For years General Browne had been one of Jefferson Davis's most intimate friends, and he assisted in the preparation of Mr. Davis's book.

Eliza Pinkston, the famous Louisiana witness in the electoral controversy of 1876-77, has died in jail at Canton, Miss., where she was serving a term for larceny.

## FOREIGN.

The second trial of Timothy Kelly, for participation in the Phoenix Park murders, was concluded in Dublin on Wednesday morning. The Judge in his charge spoke strongly against the prisoner's claim for an alibi. The jury were out only a short time, and after returning announced that they had been unable to agree on a verdict. They were sent out again and again, and after reporting the fourth time that they could not agree they were discharged. It is said that ten of the jurors were in favor of conviction.

Michael Fagan, charged with the murder of Mr. Burke, was put on trial in the same court, after the conclusion of Kelly's trial, on Wednesday. Great difficulty was experienced in forming a jury. James Carey, the informer, was the first witness for the prosecution. In the course of his testimony he declared that even now he wished to remove tyrants, and said he believed that it was no sin to kill Mr. Burke. There was some conflict between the evidence of two witnesses for the prosecution on Thursday. The trial was concluded on Friday morning, and the jury, after a short deliberation, returned a verdict of guilty. Fagan protested his innocence, but declared that he was a Fenian. He was sentenced to be hanged on May 28.

The trial of Fitzharris, known as "Skin the Goat," one of the alleged principals in the murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke, was begun on Monday morning in Dublin. He was acquitted on Tuesday, no evidence having been produced to show that he knew of the guilty intentions of the murderers whom he drove in his cab.

A printer named Gibney was arrested in Dublin on Friday for connection with the conspiracy to murder, and was arraigned in court together with Eugene Kingston, who was recently arrested in Liverpool. A charge of conspiracy to murder Poole, a Fenian Centre who had turned informer, was entered against them. The man Devine, who was arrested at the time of the affray in Abbey Street, when Detective Cox was murdered, and who has turned informer, was called to testify against the prisoners. Devine swore that he was a Fenian. He said that several Fenians had condemned Poole to death, and had ordered the prisoner, Kingston, to carry out the sentence. He swore that the society of which the prisoners were members had decided upon the murder of Detective Cox and Judge Lawson. The society had also sentenced Mr. Jenkinson, Director of the Irish Criminal Investigation Department, and Mr. Mallon, Chief of the detectives, to death. It had plotted to destroy by dynamite the house in which Crown witnesses were lodged, and had murdered the informers, Kenny and Bailey.

It was reported in London on Monday that documents containing charges against the dozen persons, now in America, who are accused of the murder in Ireland of Kenny and Bailey, have been forwarded to Mr. Sackville West, the British Minister at Washington. Secret negotiations, it is said, are now

proceeding between the British and American Governments with a view to the extradition of the men.

It is understood in London that the evidence against Peter Tynan (Number One) from independent witnesses, as well as from informers, is such as to justify decisive action by the English Government in asking for his extradition.

Carmody and Morgan, two of the men arrested at Cork on charge of being dynamite conspirators, were discharged on Thursday, and O'Herlihy and Kennedy, *alias* Featherstone, were sent to Liverpool for trial, where they were arraigned on Friday and remanded for one week.

The seven prisoners, Doctor Gallagher, Bernard Gallagher, Whitehead, Dalton, Ansburgh, Wilson, and Curtin, who are charged with treason-felony in connection with the unlawful use of explosives, were again arraigned for examination in the Bow Street Police Court, London, on Thursday morning. The evidence produced was strong against Whitehead and Bernard Gallagher. The hearing was adjourned for one week.

Alarm was caused in London on Saturday by the receipt by the Corporation of an anonymous letter warning that body that the Guildhall would be destroyed by dynamite on the 6th of May. A force of special police was detailed to guard the building.

Mr. Parnell, in a recent interview, said: "We have nothing to hope from the present Parliament, absolutely nothing. It is resolutely set in advance against every proposal in the Irish interest, even against such legislation as humanity demands. We seem to be alone in Parliament. We are alone. We are foreigners."

In the House of Commons on Thursday evening Mr. Gladstone warmly supported the Affirmation Bill. He considered that the Bradlaugh controversy should be brought to a close. He asked what had the Liberals or the Government to gain in the struggle. Did the Opposition suppose that in every case of a contested election he did not know that the Liberals lost votes and the Tories gained them? The Liberals had suffered on this account as they had previously done on the question of Catholic emancipation and the admission of Jews to seats in Parliament. Yet he hoped the Liberals would not be deterred by temporary losses from walking in the path of equity and justice. The London press pronounces the oration one of Mr. Gladstone's greatest efforts.

The race for the Two Thousand Guineas Stakes, at Newmarket, England, on Wednesday, was won by Lord Falmouth's brown colt Galliard. Prince Batthyany, a well known patron of the turf, died suddenly in the enclosure for members at the beginning of the race.

The French Senate on Thursday, by a vote of 200 to 71, passed the bill converting the 5 per cent. rentes into 4½ per cents.

A bill providing for an appropriation of 5,000,000 francs for the Tonquin expedition was introduced in the French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday by the Minister of Marine. The bill does not contemplate a warlike enterprise, but merely an expedition of such a scope as will support the claims of France in that country. The expedition will consist of one ironclad, six torpedo boats, two gunboats, and three transports for the conveyance of 1,500 troops, and is ready to sail. These additional troops will make the force in Tonquin 3,000 men.

An explosion of gas occurred on Wednesday evening at the Ambigu Theatre, Paris, while a performance was being given. Twenty persons were injured. The audience quietly departed, being ignorant of the catastrophe.

Jules Amigues, a well known French journalist and man of letters, is dead at the age of fifty-four. He was an ardent supporter of the

Emperor Napoleon during his life, and after his death opposed the Republic with bitterness. He was the author of several novels and romances.

The answer of Prussia to the letter of Cardinal Jacobini, Papal Secretary of State, has been submitted to Emperor William. It asserts that certain penal clauses of the objectionable laws might be abolished if the Vatican would consent to make concessions with regard to giving notice to Prussia of clerical appointments. Herr Windthorst on Wednesday made a motion in the Chamber of Deputies for the removal of the restrictions on the saying of mass. It was rejected by a vote of 229 to 138. A Conservative motion expressing the hope that the Government would, when the negotiations with the Vatican made it appear advisable, proceed to make an organic revision of the May laws, was adopted by a vote of 209 to 154, despite Herr von Gossler's (Minister of Worship) declaration that the motion tended to the prejudice of diplomatic action.

Prince Bismarck's organ, the *Berlin North German Gazette*, in a recent article, says the mass of work now before the German Ministry is beyond the power of the existing staff to perform. It dwells upon the condition of the Chancellor and other members of the Ministry, who are ill.

There has been severe criticism in several German newspapers, notably the *Berlin North German Gazette*, of United States Minister Sargent's letter to the American Secretary of State on the subject of German prohibition of the importation of American pork, in which he speaks of the advisability of retaliatory measures. No information has been received at the State Department in Washington in regard to the controversy. Mr. Sargent, in an interview published in a Berlin paper, declared that there was no truth in the statement that he had said that the prohibition of the importation of American pork was an illegal measure, and was carried despite the opposition of the Reichstag. It is considered hardly probable in Berlin that the attack of the *North German Gazette* will make the resignation of Mr. Sargent necessary. Mr. Sargent has had little direct intercourse with Prince Bismarck since his arrival in Berlin.

Hermann Schultze-Delitzsch, the celebrated German political economist, is dead. He was born in 1808. He was the originator in Germany of a new coöperative scheme for the assistance of workmen independent of the state. So successful was he that in 1873 Germany already contained 834 loan associations, with 400,000 members and a capital of 1,340,000,000 marks; and these numbers are continually increasing. The latest report is dated 1878, and enumerates 2,896 loan associations.

The Czar of Russia and the Grand Duke Constantine, uncle of his Majesty, have become completely reconciled through the mediation of Princess Dolgoruki.

There have been dissensions in the Spanish Cabinet during the week. Señor Giron, Minister of Justice, differs with his advanced colleagues. The Budget Committee of the Chamber of Deputies on Wednesday adopted a resolution reducing the increased expenditures proposed by General Martinez Campos, Minister of War, who thereupon resigned his position in the Cabinet. On Thursday he withdrew his resignation, and the crisis was temporarily averted. On Friday the Budget Committee of the Spanish Chamber of Deputies withdrew the amendment to reduce the expenditures for the War Department proposed by Marshal Martinez Campos. It resolved, however, to urge him to give his assent to measures of economy compatible with the efficiency of his Department.

The revolution in Ecuador is not yet ended. Veintimilla's terms have been rejected by one of the revolutionary party. He has made other proposals to Alfaro, a member of the triumvirate.

## MR. GOSCHEN ON THE ALLEGED SCARCITY OF GOLD.

MR. GOSCHEN has been repeating, in an address before a meeting of business men in London, the substance of the speech which he delivered some months ago in London on the increased purchasing power of gold, or, in other words, what is commonly called its "appreciation." He proves this appreciation by a table of prices which includes provisions, raw materials of various manufactures, metals, and clothing, in all of which he shows a fall of from 5 to 20 per cent. between 1870 and 1880. There are in England certain prominent and at first sight puzzling exceptions to this rule, such as tobacco, beer, spirits, and meat, but these exceptions can be readily accounted for. He explains the decline in prices by the absorption for currency purposes of about \$1,000,000,000 during these ten years by Germany, Italy, and the United States, which have during that period either resumed payment in gold or substituted a gold for a silver standard. The fact that during this period new and great economies in the use of gold have been introduced, by the extension of banking facilities and by the use of securities in the settlement of international balances, is acknowledged by Mr. Goschen. He believes, nevertheless, that "the economies effected do not counterbalance the strain put on gold in consequence of the increased demands of the population and the increased transactions."

The *Economist* criticises Mr. Goschen's speech upon perfectly scientific grounds, by showing that although general prices did fall, as shown, between 1870 and 1883, yet the fall did not take place in the way which Mr. Goschen's theory would seem to require. Until the year 1877 the United States had taken no steps to accumulate gold for the purposes of resumption, and Italy had not even considered the subject of resumption. The sole disturbing force in the market up to that time was Germany. Yet the fall of prices between 1873 and 1877, when the disturbing force was least, was much greater than in the later period, when the United States and Italy were drawing from the world's stock for resumption purposes. Moreover, there has been a perceptible though not a very marked rise in prices since the beginning of the year 1879, while according to Mr. Goschen's theory there ought to have been a continuous fall.

There is, perhaps, no more slippery subject in the domain of economics than the effect which a greater or less supply of gold has upon trade and upon the prices of commodities at given times. J. S. Mill thought that the only case in history where it was perfectly certain that a general rise of prices was due directly to an increased supply of the precious metals was the period following the discovery of America. This period of rising prices embraced two centuries, and, as the rise was general and pervasive, and not spasmodic, as it overlapped the alternations of good seasons and bad seasons, good trade and bad trade, speculation and panic, there was every reason to ascribe the rise to the great output of the

silver mines of Mexico and Peru. Coming to more recent times, there is good, if not actually conclusive, reason to believe that the output of gold from California and Australia, during the ten or twelve years beginning with 1848, had a real and lasting effect upon prices. We all know that these great discoveries and new supplies of gold did not avail to save the world from the commercial crisis of 1857—the most widespread and disastrous, perhaps, that has ever afflicted the business community of two hemispheres.

It is not equally clear that any fresh and extraordinary demand for gold has ever caused a decline in prices. The fall of prices from 1873 to 1879 is explainable upon philosophical grounds, without any reference to the accumulations of gold by the Governments of Germany and America. There was a panic in the year 1873 resulting from a long course of speculation, which had carried prices up to a dangerous and disastrous height. Looking at former panics in the world's history, when there was no disturbing force arising from the greater or less supply of gold, and the causes and effects were commercial and not monetary, it is easy to see that the reaction of prices after 1873 might and probably would have taken place even if Germany had not adopted the single gold standard, and even if the United States had not, some five years later, begun to add to her stock of gold for resumption purposes. It should be mentioned that the United States carried nearly \$100,000,000 gold in her Treasury as long ago as 1870, and that her subsequent accumulations with a view to resumption were much less than Mr. Goschen appears to imagine.

## A STRANGE PROCEEDING.

It is reported from Washington that the news of the appointment of Mr. Keim as Chief Examiner under the Civil-Service Commission "excited a universal smile in the capital." It is also reported that Mr. Eaton, when interrogated about the meaning of that appointment, appeared "very nervous." The smile, which was undoubtedly one of triumph on the part of the Machine politicians, is as intelligible as the nervousness of Mr. Eaton, when Mr. Keim's qualifications for the Chief Examinership, as well as the influences supporting him, are impartially considered. It is generally understood that the Chief Examiner will be the principal executive officer under the Civil-Service Commission, and that the practical success of the examination system will depend in a great measure on his fidelity and efficiency. It might, therefore, have been taken for granted that the appointing power, assuming it to have the cause of civil-service reform sincerely at heart, would not for a moment have thought of any man for that place who was not known as a sincere friend of this specific kind of reform, and as being well acquainted with its requirements and methods. The examinations which the Chief Examiner is to conduct are instituted for the very purpose of eliminating political influence from the exercise of the appointing power. The idea, therefore, of putting a man into that place, without conspicuous qualifications for it, merely on the strength of political influence backing him as an applicant for a

"berth with a salary," should, of course, have appeared absolutely preposterous. It should have been considered essential not only that the fitness of the man selected for that post be above doubt, but that his history and his character qualify him as a man entitled to enjoy, and certain to enjoy, general confidence.

In all these respects the appointment of Mr. Keim appears at first sight almost grotesque. He is undoubtedly a good sort of man in his way, but that way is not civil-service reform. It does not even seem to be alleged that he ever sympathized with that cause, and certainly not that he ever familiarized himself with the methods it employs. Mr. Keim is, on the contrary, known as a faithful and active political aid of the Camerons in Pennsylvania, and the only ability he has shown in reference to civil-service reform has been to get a large number of politicians to push him for a berth with a salary of \$3,500. And as his political associations have always been with the "Machine," and with a machine, too, of the most odious kind, it appears at first sight as if the Machine had succeeded in capturing the very instruments through which the reform of the civil service was to be effected. As Fletcher of Saltoun said: "Let me make the songs of a people, and I do not care who makes its laws," so the Machine politician may say: "Let me appoint the Chief Examiner, and I do not care who makes the civil-service rules."

Mr. Eaton has published an elaborate defence of the appointment, in which he assumes the full responsibility of it for the Commission. He sets forth that the Commission did everything they believed necessary to satisfy themselves about Mr. Keim's qualifications. If they had gone beyond the circle of those whom Mr. Keim had, in the way which is familiar to all politicians, induced to put their names on his recommendation papers, they would soon have discovered the effect which his nomination would inevitably produce. They would have satisfied themselves at once of the extreme difficulty of making the public believe that examinations conducted or superintended by Mr. Keim would be free from partisanship, or that the standards of capacity and acquirements established in them would be intelligent and judicious. They would soon have become aware that such an appointment must be a very injurious blow to civil-service reform by giving it a somewhat farcical character. The President is said to be willing to make another appointment if the Commission will recommend one, and this, it seems to us, is the best thing they can do. It will certainly not be very difficult for them to find in the departments at Washington, or in other Government offices, men who in former times have proved an intelligent devotion to the reform of the civil service, and who have also acquired the experience of civil-service examinations.

We will not assert that Mr. Keim will betray his trust, or prove as inefficient as may be feared. But surely Mr. Eaton gave an insufficient reason for taking that risk when he said that "there was no danger that Mr. Keim would not properly discharge the duties of his office, for he would be entirely within the con-

trol of the Commissioners, and any departure from the regulations adopted could be quickly rectified by a change of examiners." The Chief Examiner was to be the principal aid, the confidential executive officer, the right hand of the Commission, to carry out the regulations devised by that body; but now it turns out that an appointment has been made which adds to the duties of the Commission the peculiarly difficult task of watching the Chief Examiner. And if Mr. Eaton thinks that any departure from the regulations on the part of that officer can be quickly rectified by removing him, he will find himself egregiously mistaken, for the same political influences which were permitted to put him there will prove strong enough to keep him there.

#### THE REAL WEAKNESS OF AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES.

THE Alumni of Cornell University held a meeting in this city last week to discuss the cause of the decline in the number of students, as well as in other things, which, it is alleged, has taken place. There are two theories about the causes of this. One ascribes it to the failure of the labor system, the absence of President White, co-education, and the attacks of the religious press; the other to the falling off in the quality of the professors, owing to the smallness of the salaries paid them, as well as to some resultant mismanagement in matters of discipline. As the College has a good and well-managed endowment of about \$7,000,000, there appears to be quite money enough for all reasonable wants.

We do not pretend to know enough of the affairs of the University to express any decided opinion on any point in the controversy but one. The failure of the scheme of uniting manual with intellectual labor has, perhaps, been injurious, because it was made a very prominent feature in the programme at the start, and had an effect on the imagination of poor youths in various parts of the country which has now passed away. But this was predestined to failure from the beginning. Whether it could succeed was never a scholastic question at all, but a physiological one, which almost any young man could have settled for himself before going to college. That only very few men can work hard with both mind and muscles at the same time has been a familiar fact almost ever since the invention of the art of writing. Everybody has only a limited amount of vital force, and if he puts it into his brain, he cannot have it for his muscles, or if he puts it into his muscles, he cannot have it for his brain. The human body is not a compound engine in which the steam can be used twice over. This is the long and short of the whole matter. It is still truer, too, of young and immature men than of older ones. The labor experiment at Cornell was therefore sure only to last a short time. It was the product of the imagination of a self-made man, who had not had a regular education, and, like all such men, underestimated the drafts which getting an education makes on the strength and energy and attention at the age when it has to be acquired if it is to be acquired at all.

The point which the Alumni made most prominent in their diagnosis—the low salaries of the professors—is, we think, the most important one, and the one about which there is least room for doubt. There is not a college in the country which is not suffering from this cause, some a little and some much; and, until a radical change has been wrought in public opinion on this subject, they will certainly continue to suffer. Most colleges have but little money compared to their needs, which is as it should be. All colleges ought in this sense to be poor. But their affairs are mostly managed by business men, more familiar with commercial than scholastic affairs. One of the best-founded maxims of business is, however, that a man's proper salary is what he can get in the labor market, unless he has some exceptional talent or capacity. But the only exceptional talent or capacity which business men find it easy to recognize is one that brings in large pecuniary returns. Judged in this way, no professor seems entitled to much pay. There is hardly any salary so low that "a professor" cannot be had for it; and the difference between professors is not very perceptible to the business eye. Moreover, the most successful and famous professor in the world seems to the business eye a very poor investment. It always seems as if what the poor youth struggling for an education gets from him could be got just as well from a very inferior man.

The general result of this state of mind on the part of college trustees is that, in founding or endowing a university, their main interest is given to buildings and material equipment. The professors are treated as subordinate accessories, on which economy can most readily be practised. When a pinch comes, for instance, the reduction of their salaries is apt to be the first way of saving that is thought of. How far astray trustees are in all this may be inferred from the fact—which we hold to be indisputable—that a university consists of the professors, that all other things are but accessories, and that you might have a great and successful university, in which the thirst for knowledge would be very eager, and the stimulus applied to those seeking it very powerful, in a barn or a large tent. Therefore any policy which saves on professors to spend on something else, is a mistake of the most injurious description.

The demand for cheap professors overlooks two important facts, one peculiar to this country, the other one of the general facts of modern society. The first is that, through force of circumstances, money is in the popular eye in America a rough standard of success. People apply it to everybody, including ministers. The successful minister is the one who is called to the rich city congregation, and gets from \$10,000 to \$20,000 a year. The attractive calling is the one which has the greatest number of large pecuniary prizes. The second is, that all over the world material comfort—that is, the possibility of living with a certain freedom from small cares, and with the means of a certain amount of social enjoyment and of educating children, and saving money for old age—exercises an increasingly powerful influence on men of real capacity in choosing their profession. The inferior man

cannot choose his calling, as a general rule. He takes what comes to him. The superior man can; and the tendency in our time is for all such men to turn away from callings which do not promise them a respectable income. The importance of this consideration as regards the future of our colleges can hardly be overrated. The present attitude of trustees about salaries is exerting a very unfortunate effect on the teaching profession by driving away from it the young talent of each generation, and compelling colleges which wish for first-rate men to search Europe for professors willing to expatriate themselves in middle life. The tendency to the scholar's life is not very strong among our young men at best, but nothing better calculated to diminish it could well be hit on than the spectacle presented to them all over the country of professors who are either fourth-rate men, for whom their wretched salaries are full remuneration, or first-rate men toiling for what barely keeps body and soul together, and are thus placed, in an intensely mercantile community, in humiliating contrast with men of nearly every occupation above unskilled labor.

#### THE CONVERSION OF THE FRENCH DEBT.

THERE have been few operations with a more curious history than the conversion of the five per cents, for which the French Legislature is now at last providing. To keep them afloat for one month after they had become redeemable, and after the credit of the Government had improved sufficiently to enable it to borrow at four or four and a half per cent., seemed, from the financial point of view, plainly enough a great blunder for a heavily burdened country to make. And yet the Republic shrank from conversion for years, for the very odd reason that it was afraid of alienating the affections of the bondholders, who constituted a formidable body of voters, and who could not get the same rate of interest on any other security so good. When the loan was taken up eagerly by the peasantry and small shopkeepers throughout the country, the Government was justly proud of such a proof, both of the popular confidence and the popular thrift, but probably nobody thought that it would result in the state's being afraid to pay off its creditors. And yet this is exactly what came to pass, and it constituted a financial situation for which there has perhaps been no parallel. For at least ten years it was possible for the French Government to borrow enough at four or four and a half to pay off its fives, and it did not dare to do it. In other words, politicians of a demagogic turn, instead of crying out for a reduction of the interest on the public debt, cried out against it.

The matter, however, during all these years continued to be agitated. The more conservative financiers, like M. Leroy-Beaulieu, urged strenuously, as a measure of prudence, that the conversion should be effected while the state of the public credit and of the money market permitted it, but they were not listened to. Last year, when the scheme was for the first time taken up seriously, M. Léon Say opposed it in a now famous speech,

*\*One who professes.*

on the ground that the opportunity had for the present gone by, and that the condition of the money market was no longer favorable. The delay, combined with the agitation about it, had in fact had the effect of frightening the large holders of rentes, who knew enough of business to be able to change their investments profitably. They came to the conclusion that conversion would probably come soon, and that they might be paid off when it would be hard to find anything else as profitable. They, moreover, became alarmed by the colossal proportions of the floating debt, and the apparent want of forethought with which the finances were managed, and with the magnitude of the public works which the Government was undertaking, and began to sell out, and the fives have fallen till they are already, in point of fact, sixes or sevens. The money has gone into the English funds, or into the Italian fives, or come to this country for railroad securities. All the great borrowers of the world have, in fact, during the last year or two, been tempting French capitalists into new fields. Belgium, Holland, Italy, and even Hungary have been making their seductive offers of one sort or another, and, it would appear, with much success. In fact, the flight of money from the French rentes is reckoned by hundreds of millions of francs.

It is, therefore, questioned by some whether the conversion is any longer possible—that is, whether the Government can now borrow on terms that will make it profitable. But the experiment is going to be tried, and there is but little doubt that it will prove successful, because the small holders, who constitute the great majority, will probably accept the reduction sooner than be paid off. The mere reluctance of the Government to enter upon it for so many years has been a serious injury to French credit, because it was well known to be due to political reasons, and when the management of the public finances in any country is known to be affected seriously by political considerations, or, in other words, is known not to be purely financial, the effect on investors is depressing. The more conservative French financiers are now trying to cheer the Government up through the press by pointing to the example of England and America in the matter of conversion. What is oddest in these attempts is that they are careful to point out that conversion at a lower rate of interest is not an anti-democratic thing to do, because the United States do it. Into this state of mind it is a little difficult for an American, with his vivid realization that the public finances are his own, to enter. The Frenchman has so long been accustomed to look on the Government as an entity apart from the nation, with resources and means of being bountiful of its own, that even now, when the Republic is well established, he cannot quite grasp the idea that to convert fives into fours is to save money for the taxpayer. He is haunted by a vague notion that it is a simple piece of illiberality on the part of the state toward the bondholder, with which the taxpayer has nothing to do.

## SENTIMENTAL QUESTIONS IN POLITICS.

LONDON, April 19.

THE absence of exciting questions in domestic politics, and the increasing part which women take in public affairs, have, during the past few years, brought what may be called sentimental questions more and more to the front in England. I use the term not in that disparaging sense which it is sometimes made to bear, and which the word sentimentalism implies. I use it merely to denote questions which are supported not so much because they involve either the political or the material advantage of any class, or because they are recommended by philosophical, or economical, or constitutional arguments, as because they appeal to some popular emotion. They are not the worse but all the better for doing so, and to call them sentimental is not to deny that they have other bases to rest on, but only to assert that their chief support comes from the feelings enlisted on their side. To this class belong all the liquor questions, of which we have so large a crop—proposals to give ratepayers the right of controlling the issue of public-house licenses within a given locality, proposals to interdict the sale of intoxicants during the whole of Sunday, proposals to close public houses at election times, and so forth. To this belong also the great group of woman questions: first and foremost, the grant of the Parliamentary franchise to women; then the admission of women to various institutions and occupations. Then there is another set relating to the protection of animals, of which two specimens have lately come before Parliament: the one a bill to put an end to the practice of shooting at pigeons suddenly released from a cage or box, the other a bill for preventing all experiments upon living animals. There are others, of course, which may be referred to the same category, but these are instances sufficient to show how many proposals of the kind are floating about. Needless to say that they receive very different measures of support, and from quite different classes of persons.

Of the three groups I have specified, the liquor-question bills excite by far the most general and active interest. Few things are more remarkable in the recent history of Great Britain than the growth of the teetotal movement. Drunkenness has long been the characteristic fault of these islands, as of the North-German and Scandinavian races generally, and it is beyond all doubt the greatest obstacle to the moral and social progress of the poorer classes. The growth of the philanthropic spirit among the middle and upper ranks of society, and the increased sense of responsibility and personal dignity among the workingmen, which have gone hand in hand during the last forty years, have given more and more momentum to efforts in the cause of temperance. Ten years ago we were in a period of great commercial prosperity; work was abundant, and very high wages were paid for it. The consumption of intoxicants had reached stupendous proportions. Social reformers felt more than ever the magnitude of the evil, and the clergy of the Established Church took up the question, as the Nonconformist ministers had done already. Associations were formed in every nook and corner of the country for stopping or restricting the sale of intoxicants, in addition to those which already consisted of persons who themselves abstained. The general election of 1874, in which the public-house interest had put forth all its strength, and been one main cause of the defeat of the Liberal Ministry, inflamed the minds of the temperance men, who saw how active and powerful their foe was. At the election of 1880 there was another

trial of strength, and now the temperance men had the best of it. At present, although the liquor party is still strong and well organized, their favor in a constituency seems on the whole less effective than that of the abstainers, and accordingly the House of Commons has gone round. Up till 1880, it rejected the proposal to give the ratepayers of a district power over the grant of licenses. Since 1880 it has twice affirmed that principle, and if a bill for the purpose were to be brought in, it would be supported by a considerable majority. Your readers may ask why, that being so, bills are not brought in to carry out the temperance programme. The reason is that the forms of the House of Commons make it practically impossible for any opposed bill to pass which is not pushed through by the Government. There are so many engines of legitimate as well as illegitimate obstruction that a private member's bill has no chance. Thus the Sunday Closing Bill, which appears to command a majority, has been repeatedly stopped, and will doubtless continue to be so till a Ministry takes it up. In this state of matters, the temperance men are forced to go on agitating through the country. They hold many thousands of meetings every year, and send up thousands of petitions to Parliament, signed, as they declare, by millions of people. Public interest is kept alive, members are held to their pledges, the number of teetotallers seems to go on increasing, but the law remains unchanged.

The woman questions excite a far less general and ardent sympathy. They have indeed passed out of the stage of being ridiculed or called crotchets. Most sensible people are agreed that professions and employments ought to be opened to women, and their opportunities for getting a university education greatly enlarged. The franchise question stands on a different footing, but it is large enough to require a letter to itself. The proposals for giving additional protection to animals, which resemble the two former groups in being advocated chiefly on emotional grounds, are backed by a still smaller mass of public opinion. It is true that pigeon shooting is now condemned by nearly all, I might indeed say by all, humane men. Its defence is left to a few sportsmen, mostly belonging to the landed gentry, who are half ashamed of their odious cause. But the thing is too small to command much interest from the public, and the very fact that little can be said for such a cruel amusement makes people indifferent, because it is felt that it cannot last much longer. On the other hand, the proposal to forbid all experiments on living creatures is pressed and resisted with great warmth. The attacking force is comparatively small, the resisting force, consisting of the physiologists and those men of science or of medicine who sympathize with their physiological brethren, is still smaller. The great bulk of the public is neutral, and therefore opposed to a change in the law until it can be shown that such a change is necessary. Now, the present law, formed by an act passed in 1876, prohibits all such experiments except under a license granted by the Home Secretary, and imposes considerable restrictions on the experiments themselves, requiring anaesthetics to be used whenever the experiment is for the purpose of physiological teaching, and requiring the animal to be put to death (unless where a special license dispenses with this obligation) before it recovers from the anaesthetic administered. Licenses are sparingly granted under this act. In the year 1881, the total number of persons holding licenses was in the whole United Kingdom forty-four, and of these only twenty-eight did in fact perform experiments; the total number of experiments performed being 297.

The reports of the inspectors appointed to superintend the working of the act state that owing to the character of the experiments and the use of anesthetics, hardly any suffering was caused to the animals operated upon, while results of considerable importance to science were obtained. The mischief does not therefore seem to those who believe these reports in itself a very serious one, and it is obviously small when compared with the suffering inflicted in pigeon, pheasant, partridge, and grouse-shooting, which are the favorite amusements of the wealthy classes; in hare and fox-hunting, and in the coursing and shooting of hares for sport.

However, the matter has excited the hottest possible feelings among some benevolent persons. Two or three societies exist for the absolute interdiction of all vivisection (as it is called), and some leaders of the agitation insist that no discoveries in science or in practical medicine can justify the infliction of any pain upon a living creature. Here, too, the apparatus of petitions is resorted to; and in the present session a large number have been presented in support of a bill brought forward to render penal any experiment whatever on a living animal. The Government oppose this bill, and if a division is ever taken upon it, it will apparently be defeated, most people thinking that the present law sufficiently prevents any needless suffering. But the agitation is an interesting one for several reasons. In the first place, it illustrates the extreme tenderness of modern English feeling. Forty years ago cock-fighting was a common sport in England, as bull-baiting was in the days of 'Sandford and Merton' at the end of the last century. There are still cruel sports in vogue among us, but they have been put upon their defence, and in spite of the wealth and social influence of those who follow them—an influence, of course, far greater than that of scientific physiologists—they will in time decline and disappear. In most parts of the continent of Europe, and particularly in Italy and France, vivisection is carried on with no interference from the penal law, and cruelties perpetrated for which no one in England has a word to say, although they would have excited little comment in the last generation. Then, secondly, the excellent motives of those who conduct this agitation have made their language more vehement, and even fierce, than we have generally heard in any secular controversy. Matters which are argued on grounds of sentiment clearly have a peculiar power of heating men's feelings, and to destroy the capacity for weighing evidence and admitting that there can be two sides to a question. This was observed long ago in theological disputes. It is just as true of all others that enlist the feelings.

Lastly, this question, and, indeed, all these which I have called sentimental questions, are remarkable as having drawn women much more than formerly into the arena of public life. Not only on the woman questions, but in the anti-vivisection movement, and to some extent in the temperance movement, as well as in other matters to which it is needless to refer more specifically, a great part—sometimes the greatest part—of the work of agitation has devolved upon women. They have the advantage of comparative leisure, and of a tenacious patience which seems to exceed that of men. Their speaking at public meetings, which used to attract audiences, has lost the charm of novelty, but their talents for conducting a movement have been trained and developed, and they have still the advantage of being treated more respectfully by most people than male antagonists would be. They are sometimes accused of being more bitter and unfair in controversy than men are; but the charge is ill-founded. It is true that, in several of the controversies they share in, much bitterness has

been displayed, but it comes just as much from men as from women, and may rather be set down to the exciting nature of the subject. They are now very influential auxiliaries in any movement which appeals to them; and the more active-minded among them are thus drawn on to be more interested in the general politics of the country than was formerly the case. Y.

#### RENAN'S LECTURE ON JUDAISM.

PARIS, April 13, 1883.

I REMEMBER a time when lectures were a thing unknown in Paris. Whoever wished to be instructed in some particular branch of science, of literature, or of art, had the resources of the lessons given in a vast number of establishments opened to the public; the lecture proper, the conversation between an orator and a mixed public, was unknown. We have now on the Boulevard des Capucines a "Salle des Conférences," where you can hear a lecture every night. The lecture and the lecturer are advertised as a new play at a theatre. The Parisian public wants constant entertainment, and the railways bring so many people to the capital that every new play, even when it is mediocre, can be played a hundred, two hundred times in succession. The result of this great prosperity of the theatres is a certain monotony. The Parisian can only go a certain number of times to the play in the season, as he does not care to see a piece more than once. What shall he do the rest of the time? Society is very stagnant; it is divided, by politics, discouraged, in a bad mood. The club is not a very great resource. We have now the exhibitions and the lectures. Every week there is some new exhibition. Every painter of any notoriety exhibits in turn his "œuvre." We had not long ago the exhibition of Baudry; we have the yearly exhibition of the "Aquarellists"; we have just now the exhibition of old Japanese art.

The Saint-Simon Club is a new historical club, which gives a lecture to its members every Saturday evening. Among the first lecturers has been M. Renan, who chose for his subject "Judaism as a Race and as a Religion." The Saint-Simon Club aims to have lectures of a higher class than the popular lectures of the Boulevard des Capucines. The members of the Club all have some sort of notoriety, and are familiar with historical questions. It is needless to say that M. Renan, the author of so many famous works on the origin of Christianity, was particularly fit to speak of the Jewish race. As he proudly said, France has no Semitic question; we can treat the questions concerning Judaism merely from an historical and ethnographical point of view. France has always looked on such questions from the highest standpoint of humanity. "The work of the nineteenth century consists in opening all the ghettos, and I do not make my compliments to those who wish to have them shut again."

M. Renan began by drawing a fundamental distinction between national or local religions and universal religions. Of universal religions, he knows only three: Buddhism, Christianity, and Islam. There are Buddhists, Christians, and Mussulmans of all races. We know exactly the date of the origin of these three religions: Buddhism was born four or five hundred years before Jesus Christ, though its great conquests came later. Everybody knows the date of the origin of the two other universal religions. The national religions are almost numberless: all the nations of antiquity had their own religion. These local religions were supported by patriotism, and supported it in their turn. Two na-

tional religions have survived: one is Parseeism, the other is Judaism, which, originally at least, was the religion of a country, the religion of Israel, of the land of Judah. It can be stated with certainty that Judaism in the beginning had the character of a national religion. "Jehovah protects Israel as Chamos, the Moabite god, protects Moab." What the Moabites thought of their god is well shown us by the inscription of King Mesha which is in the Louvre. The King is a sort of partner of the god; when he gains a victory, he divides the spoils with Chamos, he thanks the god in proportion to the advantages which he has received. It is probable that the Hebrew kings did not feel much differently. How has this egotistic, interested religion become universal? M. Renan says that the widening work, if I may so express it, was first begun by the prophets. The prophets are the proper glory of Israel. Isaiah, the most illustrious, told the Jews that all sacrifices were useless, that God must be adored with pure hands; the true servant of Jehovah is the virtuous man. Religion becomes moral, and in this way, once penetrated with the idea of justice, it becomes perforce universal.

The founders of Christianity were, in the opinion of M. Renan, the heirs of the prophets, the last representatives of the prophetic spirit. They considered sacrifices a mere archaism. For him, the first founder of Christianity was Isaiah, who flourished about 725 B. C. He had the conception of a moral religion, and the vision of a sort of golden age, without any idols, of a perfect kingdom, of which Jerusalem would be the capital. The destruction of the temple did not destroy these hopes; on the contrary, the century which followed this great calamity was for the Hebrew genius an age of great and marvellous expansion. As for the Jewish race, what became of it during the captivity and during the long period of the Persian domination, from the year 539 B. C. to Alexander? M. Renan suspects that the race must have lost its purity; the reformers Nehemiah and Ezra express a great horror of mixed marriages. The foreign element became very important during the period of the Greek and Roman domination. M. Renan calls attention to a phrase of Josephus, in his 'History of the Jews' (book vii., chap. iii.). Josephus speaks of the extraordinary prosperity of the Jews of Antioch, and says: "Having brought to their worship a great number of Hellenes, they made them a part of their community." Here we see a number of Greeks converted to Judaism and going to the synagogue. It must have been the same in Alexandria, and M. Renan does not doubt that the Jewish Church of Alexandria was in a great measure recruited from the Egypto-Hellenic population. Alexandria was the place where so many propagandist books were published—sibylline books, false classics to which the Jewish writers lent their own sentiments—Pseudo-Phocylides, Pseudo-Heraclites, and others.

Were all the converted Jews complete Jews? Did they only what was called in Rome, "vitam judaicam agere," or did they all adopt the traditional rites of the Jewish religion? It is difficult to answer. What evidence we have is this: these men, of Greek origin, of Egyptian origin, who kept the Sabbath, were ripe for Christian ideas; perhaps they were even more so than the old-fashioned Jews. Syria was a principal seat of Jewish propagandism. Helena, the Queen of Adiabene, made herself a Jew with all her family. In many cases these new Jews became perfect Jews—the second generation was nearly always so. At Palmyra we see the same phenomenon; many inscriptions have a pronounced Jewish character. The great dynasties of the Asmonians and of the Herods brought

many populations perforce into Judaism. Josephus, in his treatise "against Apion," says:

"Thus arose among many multitudes a desire to adopt our worship, so that there was not a city, either Greek or barbarian, there was not a nation where you did not find the custom of the Sabbath, of fasting, of the lamps, of the distinctions in food, which we observe. They tried also to imitate our concord, our almsgiving, our love of work, our courage in suffering everything for the sake of the Law. For what is more surprising is that, without any attraction of sensual delights, the Law makes these miracles of itself; and as God penetrates the universe, so has the Law infiltrated itself among all men. If anybody doubts my affirmation, let him look at his own country and his family."

Dion Cassius, speaking of Judea, says that its inhabitants are called Jews. "I do not know," says he, "the origin of this name, but it applies also to other men who have adopted the institutions of this people, though they are of another race. And there are among the Romans many men of this sort." Nothing can be clearer than this assertion of Dion Cassius: the Jews primitively formed a separate people, but in his time they had ceased to be a race—there were Jews of various races. Judaism had become merely a doctrine, which had its orthodoxy and its shades and varieties of heterodoxy. There had grown up a mitigated Judaism; the spiritualism of the Jewish doctrine attracted many more than its rigid forms and its rites. Still, many of the converted became Jews in the complete sense of the conditions imposed on the descendants of Abraham. Juvenal (Sat. xiv., vv. 96 *et seq.*) shows clearly how the fathers began with the Sabbath, and how the sons became perfect Jews:

"Quilam sortiti metuentem sabbata patrem  
Nil praeter nubes et coeli nomen adorant,  
Nec distare putant humana carne suillam,  
Qua pater abstulit, mox et uestigia ponunt.  
Romanas autem soliti contemnere leges  
Judaicum ediscunt et servant ac metuant jus,  
Tradidit arcano quodcumque volumine Moses,  
Non monstrare vias, eadem nisi sacra colenti,  
Quaesitum ad fontem solas deducere verpos,  
Sed pater in causa, cui septima quaeque fuit lux  
Ignava, et partem vite non attigit uliam."

Juvenal here denounces the fanaticism of the Jews, and shows them little inclined to point the way to those who were not in it. This may be a calumny; but the first verses show well how the sons of the new converts became ardent and perfect Jews. The conversion of the Gentiles to spiritualistic and monotheistic doctrine was thus begun by Judaism before it was achieved by Christianity. Judaism stands in the history of the world as the first pure, immaterial, divine doctrine. There were distinctions among the Jewish converts—it is proved by all we have said, and the proof might be made more complete by citations from Tacitus, by distinctions established in the law of Antoninus Pius. There was no distinction in point of doctrine. All the Gentiles who adopted Judaism adopted the doctrine of the Law, the belief in a single God. The infusion of the Gentile element in Judaism became such that it alarmed the doctors, and the reaction which took place is no other than the Talmud. Judaism felt that it was at the point of being lost in Christianity. It made itself more orthodox, more narrow, and the spirit of proselytism was crushed. For centuries Judaism separated itself from the world.

It is clear, notwithstanding, that the Jews do not form an ethnographic unity. The first Jews who came to France (Gregory of Tours says that there were in his time many Jews in Paris, Orléans, Clermont) came from Marseilles. They made converts in the valley of the Rhone. M. Renan thinks that many Gauls may have made themselves Jews; but on this point we have very few data. Judaism came to Germany and to England from France; as for Russia, we know that the kingdom of the Khazars occupied nearly all southern Russia, and this kingdom

adopted Judaism in the time of Charlemagne. The valley of the Danube and the south of Russia contain great masses of the Jewish population which, ethnographically, have nothing in common with the Jews of Palestine. "The Jewish race," says Renan, "which is often considered as the ideal of the pure *ethnos*, kept from century to century by the interdiction of mixed marriages, has been strongly penetrated with foreign infusions." Judaism was first a national religion, and it has become again a close religion; but during many centuries it was an open religion, and made converts in a thousand places. Ethnographically, the signification of the word has, therefore, become extremely doubtful. The main objection to this doctrine is what is called the Jewish type; but M. Renan maintains that there is not one Jewish type, but several, and he attributes the permanence of some of these types to the sequestration of the ghettos, and to the interdiction of mixed marriages.

## Correspondence.

### CONVICT INDEXING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I fancy all who were interested in the subject were as much astonished at the savage onslaught made, in another journal, on the author of the amusing and inoffensive (if not specially brilliant) suggestion about "convict indexes" as the unfortunate writer must have been. Mr. Browne, however, is evidently quite able to defend himself, and I wish merely to point out the flaws in "W. I. F.'s" argument.

1. He assumes that convict labor is unskilled and bungling, whereas I believe prisons turn out as good quality of such articles as they make (*e. g.*, hats, furniture, etc.) as other establishments. Convict hat-makers, of course, have to be trained, but so, also, do indexers.

2. "W. I. F." calls the index to the *Popular Science Monthly* "an example of convict indexing." It is gross injustice to the industrial prison system to think for a moment that any prison which employed its convicts in indexing would allow such work to go forth.

3. It is obvious that if the occurrence of such errors as "W. I. F." cites stamps an index as convict labor (I have remarked how unjust to convicts such nomenclature is), then certain "professional indexers" must be convicts in disguise, for errors equally singular have been pointed out in your columns as occurring in "Poole."

W. M. G.

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS, WASHINGTON, April 26, 1883.

### THE KANSAS "INDEX."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I fear that your notice of the little monthly which I desire to issue may be misunderstood, and may endanger my success.

The actual subscription-list will, at best, be very small, and, whatever it may be, my intention is to expend every dollar thus received in increasing the circulation. My desire is to place in the hands of every young reader in the State, *gratuitously*, this monthly suggestion and guide to good current literature. I had no thought of general circulation, nor of making the "Index" complete, but as complete as the recognition by the best publishers would admit. Mine is purely a local, helpful measure. It will reach those who would rarely, under any circumstances, see either Poole's or the proposed monthly index, though I welcome them, and shall be only too glad to insert in the Kansas monthly a "standing" reference to them, suggesting their purchase and use, and will do this gratuitously.

I venture to make this explanation, lest your comment and slight comparison may (unintentionally, of course) prevent some publisher from recognizing me with an "exchange," and thus limit my references.—Very truly, etc.,

JAMES H. CANFIELD.

UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS, LAWRENCE,  
April 25, 1883.

[Our objection did not lie against the relative incompleteness of Professor Canfield's list as shown in his prospectus, but against the vagueness of his references, not to mention other defects in his mode of indexing.—ED. NATION.]

### THE TYPOGRAPHICAL REPRODUCTION OF MSS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I say that the writer of the paragraph in the last number of the *Nation* in commendation of Mr. C. F. Adams, jr.'s, paper at a late meeting of the Massachusetts Historical Society, in which that gentleman objected to the Society's edition of Bradford's MS. "History of Plymouth Plantations" and Doctor Green's papers on Groton, for their attempt to represent in type spelling and contractions used in the manuscript, mistakes the purpose of such editors and the requirements of historical students? It is not that printers of those days would have set up the copy differently—that is admitted—but it is that the historical student needs such books "printed as manuscript," as the phrase goes, and he only feels safe in dealing with them when such is the case. Minute but essential points may sometimes turn upon contractions and spelling, and spelling and grammar are essential to the student's accurate conception of the authority he is dealing with, as Mr. Parkman, at the meeting, emphasized in the case of the Dinwiddie papers. The reasons now urged are confined to the supplying of historical material for purposes of study. The question of the way in which contemporary printers would have presented the MS., and the needs of the ordinary reader, is quite another question, and should not be confounded with the purposes which antiquarian societies in this country and in England have in preserving manuscript material as manuscript, though conveniently put in type.

JUSTIN WINSOR.

CAMBRIDGE, April 27, 1883.

[Our language was sufficiently guarded. We said: "Much of this facsimile printing had better be dispensed with altogether, or reserved for special occasions. There is, in fact, no more sense in reproducing the commoner abbreviations," etc. We had in mind *ye* for the, *yt* for that, the familiar sign of contraction for the prefix *per*-, and the like, as to which the context leaves no room for mistake. In general it may be held that we can as well trust the transcriber of a MS. for his interpretation of the contractions in a hand which he has studied, as for his simple reproduction of them. Such as are peculiar to the individual writer and at the same time obscure or ambiguous should of course be imitated in print; but, at best, recourse must still be had to the manuscript itself in case of dispute.—ED. NATION.]

### CIVIL-SERVICE EXAMINATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The statement in your editorial of 26th instant, that it is feared in Washington that

persons who fail of success in the civil service examinations may "accuse the examiners of unfair dealings as to the ratings, and harass them with criminal prosecutions," seems to indicate an inference by the persons in Washington who are suffering under such alarm that the new law simply transfers the power of appointing subordinates from the personal discretion of the politicians, in whom it is now practically vested, to the personal discretion of the Commission and its examiners. A similar want of information or density of perception has seemed to afflict a large proportion of the noisiest opponents of the reform both in and out of the various legislative bodies who have recently struggled with the subject. Hence it seems important to keep constantly before the public that the point and essence of the reform, as urged by its intelligent advocates, is not to remove discretion from one power to vest it in another, but to eliminate and destroy the dangerous element of personal discretion altogether. It was the opinion of Mr. Burt and other experts in the new system that, as reduced to practice in the public offices in New York, all personal discretion had been eliminated from the selection of officials except as regarded a residuum of about five per cent. of the determining considerations.

The systematic process by which this was accomplished, and unerring and impartial system effectually substituted for personal discretion, is too long to explain here; but, on a careful examination made some months since, I was personally satisfied that the claim to that effect had been made good. However that may be, it is certain that if the Commission adheres to the system adopted in England, and pursued by Mr. Burt in the Naval Office at New York—namely, of examining all applicants under distinguishing numbers, by which alone their identity shall be known to the examiners, referring for their names only to envelopes kept sealed till after the examination is concluded and the ratings made—there can be no ground for the fear of legal prosecutions against the examiners which seems to be disquieting the Washington politicians.—Very respectfully,

I. J. WISTAR.

PHILADELPHIA, APRIL 27, 1883.

## CATHOLIC CASUISTRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of April 19 you raise a question on which, I think, I can throw some light. In your comments on Brady's denial of his guilt in court, you remark:

"It will be interesting, however, to see whether he denies it on the scaffold. If he does, it will heighten the public curiosity as to the nature of the arrangement with his spiritual advisers which enables him to do this. No satisfactory explanation of these solemn asseverations of innocence at the last moment by Catholic criminals who have just received the rites which the Church only gives to the penitent, has ever been made."

And again:

"There is doubtless some condition of the conscience, of which we know nothing, which enables these men to be good 'Catholics' in their own eyes, while engaged in a certain class of crime, and to deny it to the last gasp without imperilling their salvation."

Now all this, it seems to me, is the direct result of the system of moral (?) teaching at present in vogue in the Roman Catholic Church. Undoubtedly, what incites, supports, and justifies these men in their own eyes in the commission of such crimes is the Jesuitical maxim that "the end is justified by the means," and especially when an act is done "ad maiorem Dei gloriam." What enables them to declare them-

selves innocent of such crimes, after conviction of them, after having actually committed them, and even on the scaffold itself, is that Church's authorized system of casuistry, devised for this very purpose of reconciling consciences, under certain circumstances, to certain cases of sins which otherwise seem to be condemned by broad, general laws of God.

This, I think, will appear to be the fact, on the following authority. A recent English writer, Dr. Littledale, in a small volume entitled 'Plain Reasons against Joining the Church of Rome,' in speaking of this very point in question, says (pp. 20 ff.):

"And the chief authority on morals now in the Roman Church is Saint Alfonso Liguori, whose teaching all Roman Catholic confessors are now encouraged to follow in the confessional, since he has been raised to the rank of a 'Doctor of the Church.' As a saint, according to Roman doctrine, there can be no error in his writings; but as a doctor, not only is there no error, but his teaching is to guide bishops and clergy in forming their judgment on difficult cases, and to be a standard whereby they themselves are to be judged (Leo XIV., cited by Benedict XIV., 'De Canonizatione,' iv., xi. 16). Now, he says, for example, (1) that the actual assassins of a man are not equally guilty with their instigator, whom he admits to incur excommunication ('Theol. Moral,' iv. 344); (2) that if a murderer B, in order that C may be suspected of the murder, and thereby suffer loss of any kind (is not this the case of Brady *et al.* with the Land League?), A is not bound to make C any compensation, unless he be a 'worthy' person (iv. 587); . . . (4) that an adulteress may deny her sin on oath, either by saying that she has not broken the marriage tie (since adultery does not void it), or, if she has gone to confession, that she is innocent of the sin, because it has been washed away in confession (italics are ours); or, again, that she has not committed it—i. e., so as to be bound to acknowledge it (iv. 162); (5) that a man may swear aloud to any false statement, provided he add some true circumstances in an undertone, unheard by the bystanders (iv. 168); (6) that it is lawful to swear to a quibble or to perjure one's self before a judge, if any great loss or inconvenience would follow to a witness from speaking the truth (iv. 151-6); etc., etc."

Now, I am not able to verify Dr. Littledale's references, as I have no copy of Liguori's writings by me. I do not even know whether there exists an English translation of them, as the only copy I ever saw was in the original (French). Still, the reverend doctor plainly courts the most thorough investigation of the truth of his statements and of the correctness of his quotations; and it would be "interesting" to know, if you can get at the original, whether such asserted teaching by such an authority does not fully explain the strange obliquity of moral vision which seems to characterize such men as Brady in contemplating their horrible crimes against law, human and divine.

Truly yours, BOYD VINCENT.

PITTSBURGH, APRIL 25, 1883.

## UNIVERSITY HONOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your last issue there appeared an article on "University Honor—North and South," in which conclusions were drawn unfavorable to the former. The basis of the writer's belief seemed to be, first, the fact that scarcely any supervision was exercised over the students in Southern colleges during examinations; and, second, the report of two instances where a student who had been detected by his fellows in the act of consulting books during an examination was compelled by them to leave college.

I think the conclusions are rather far-fetched. All that the writer relates as the ground of his belief is consistent with any amount of cheating on the part of the students. It was regarded as a virtue among the Spartans to be able to steal

without being detected; but if the perpetrator of a theft had the misfortune to be caught thereat, he was severely punished. It is preposterous to assert that any large body of young men of such remarkable morality as this writer imputes to Southern college students can be found either North or South. Not long since, in a neighboring State, a county superintendent of public schools introduced examinations of the scholars on the plan of allowing each teacher to examine his own pupils on a set of questions furnished by the superintendent. Diplomas were to be publicly presented to the pupils who successfully passed the examination. The teachers in most instances were men and women of experience and ability, and of as high morality as is usually incident to human nature, and there was every reason to believe that the examinations would be fair and impartial. The results proved otherwise. Each teacher desired to have as many as possible of his pupils pass the examination, and in many instances the rules of morality and honor were grossly ignored. In their eagerness to have their pupils succeed, they actually assisted them in answering the questions.

This shows that even teachers are simply human, and require supervision. To maintain that college students can be allowed such liberties in the matter of examinations as your correspondent suggests, and to believe that frauds are not perpetrated under such circumstances, belies all human experience, and suggests a degree of gullibility quite extraordinary. To hold that Southern honor is superior to Northern honor implies that one is unaware of the origin of the word repudiation. When every day's paper brings us news from all parts of our country of bank, railroad, insurance, and Government defalcations, it is the height of "freshness" to bring forward the Southern college student as a model wherein there is naught but purity and ingenuousness. Each class has its peculiar failings, and "cribbing" and "skinning" are the failings of college students. X.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: At the close of Mr. Jameson's reply to Mr. Plimpton, published in your last issue, occurs the following language:

"Mr. Plimpton forgets that the greater part of the watching and of the cheating in Northern colleges takes place at the entrance examinations, when no *esprit de corps* has yet come into existence, while at the University of Virginia there are, if I remember, no entrance examinations."

Mr. Jameson is mistaken on this last point, as he will see on consulting a catalogue of the University. However, the error is pardonable, as it has been only during the past seven or eight years that such examinations (outside a general examination in spelling and English composition) have been required.

The point upon which I wish to give my testimony is, that the lads who enter the University of Virginia stand in no need of the "*esprit de corps*" of college life to develop in them a proper sense of the baseness of cheating. They carry up with them from the preparatory schools an utter scorn for any fellow who will lie or cheat, and, back of all this, a fixed determination that, whenever such fellow be found, he shall at once be kicked out of honest company.

During the eighteen years that I have been head master of this school I have found the sentiment universal among the boys as to the *mean-ness* of cheating or lying. A boy's word is never questioned here, and there is no watching. In this time, five boys have been sent off for lying or cheating (there are over one hundred boys in the school), and in every case they have virtually been sent off by the boys themselves, and this

notwithstanding the fact that they were all popular fellows. The cases were such as no master could ever have detected himself. The boys have the feeling that they are responsible for the honor of the school, and guard it jealously. It may interest some of your readers to know the method of procedure in such cases. It is as follows: Whenever a boy has lied or cheated, the two highest classes in the school (of their own accord) hold a meeting and appoint a committee to investigate the matter. This committee first gives the accused a hearing, and then reports. If the report is unfavorable to the accused, the committee waits on the head master and informs him that a case of cheating or lying has occurred in the school. The accused does not wait for the report to be read out before the whole school, but at once comes forward and gives his name. The head master then appoints a "jury" of twelve boys to consider the case, in his presence, reserving to himself explicitly the right to veto their decision. The accused is allowed absolute right of "challenge" as to members of the "jury," and may, without assigning any reason, throw off any member of it. He then makes his statement, and may call his witnesses. I have never had but two cases in which this has been necessary. The whole matter is then canvassed, and the head master, after discussion, asks the decision of each member, beginning with the youngest. It would astonish, I fancy, many older people to see the intelligence and fairness with which boys canvass such matters. I have presided at all of these trials, and have never seen cause to use my right of veto. The cases have been fairly tried, and of seven cases the unanimous verdict in five has been expulsion. In the other two the verdict was "not proven." I find that the committee appointed by the boys to investigate the matter uses the utmost caution before presenting the case. As I do not watch my boys or doubt their word, I have never had even a suspicion of the cases, save in one instance, until presented to me. Of course a boy expelled is never allowed to return. This sense of truth and fair-dealing speedily communicates itself to new boys who come in, and I have never seen a boy of any manliness who was not delighted with it.

The examinations here consist entirely of "paper work." The numerical value of the questions set amounts to 100, and the value of the answers must amount to 80 (four-fifths) for a pass into the "first division." The papers are corrected and handed back to the boys (in February and June), that they may see where and how they have failed. On three occasions I have had papers returned to me by boys who were rated at 80 exactly (just a pass), with the explanation that the instructor had overlooked in his addition marks taken off, and that, according to the papers, they were "pitched"—i. e., had failed to attain the "first division." I have always felt bound to "pitch" them, but I have always applauded their fine sense of honor in the presence of the school, and confirmed them in the feeling that there are things in life worth a great deal more than the distinction of being rated in the "first division."

Cheating will never be stopped in any school or college until espionage is given up, and public opinion educated up to the point of regarding a cheat or a liar as a miserable "sneak-thief" (as Mr. Plimpton aptly phrases it). It won't do simply for "a majority" to be against it; the feeling against it, and the determination to put it down relentlessly, must permeate the whole mass of students.

I was six years in a great school preparatory to the University of Virginia, and afterward a student in the University, and I am satisfied that if any one were set to watch the students

the feeling would be one of the utmost indignation, and that they would at once leave the examination-room. For years I have had no case of either lying or cheating here; and when I make this declaration, I do so, not because I am "green," but because my school and college experience, and my close companionship with boys and knowledge of their ways of thinking about such matters, assure me that I speak but simple truth.—Very respectfully,

W. GORDON McCABE,  
Head Master Univ. School.  
PETERSBURG, VA., April 28, 1883.

#### COLLEGE HONOR AND COLLEGE HONORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Geo. A. Plimpton, in his communication in the *Nation* of April 19 on "University Honor—North and South," seems struck with the fact that, at an examination in the University of Virginia, a student from Indiana "was detected consulting his books while out, not by members of the Faculty, but by his fellow-students," and that "the sentiment among his classmates was so strong at what they considered an outrage that they immediately warned him that, unless he left within so many hours, violence might be done to his person"; and with the further fact that, in a similar case at the University of Georgia, "the accused was detected and expelled, not by the Faculty, but by his own associates."

Is not a natural explanation of these facts suggested by the title I have given this communication? If not—if the action in these cases proceeded purely from unselfish indignation—how happens it that these same students in a case of "outrageous" violation of college law, not threatening their relative rank in scholarship, not only would not have taken the discipline into their own hands, but would, to a man, have refused to aid the Faculty in it, even by so much as testifying to what their own eyes had seen; and that, too, when suspicion might fall, perhaps had, to their own knowledge, already fallen, on the innocent? College honor is a queer compound, North or South.

Yours respectfully, E. J. STEARNS.

ST. JOHN'S SCHOOL, BRANDYWINE SPRINGS,  
FAULKLAND, DEL., April 28, 1883.

#### WOMEN AND POLITICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the issue of April 12 your correspondent signing herself "D." and writing of "woman's interest in politics," has attracted me by the statement, "I would take a much deeper interest in all subjects, if I knew what to do with my knowledge." My object in writing is twofold: to bring myself in communication with "D." (as this is my only place of reaching her), and to add my testimony to hers, that women do take deep interest in politics, and to a far greater extent than most men know.

The slurs, cuts, and hostility the press of the nation everywhere has indulged in concerning those women bold enough to study politics, and who dare be called "strong-minded," has been the cause of many women doing precisely as "D." has done—veiling their knowledge, even from their own male relatives often, fearing the same scorn which these women have met from the public. Mrs. Elizabeth Cady Stanton declared once, in a company of ladies, that the Southern women she met in Washington with their husbands, who were members of Congress before the war, were all of them generally well posted on political questions. Few men were ever more deeply interested in all political questions than many women I can name—among them Mrs. Caroline E. M., of New Orleans, wife

of a former Chief Justice of that State. Nor is there in the United States a man more thoroughly conversant with both State and national jurisprudence than Mrs. Myra Clark Gaines, of Louisiana; and she is always thoroughly posted on the political and financial questions of the day. One might naturally infer that it is because these two women have some special motive in being informed concerning politics. It would require greater space than the *Nation* would allow merely to enumerate the names of women thus interested in the three States of Louisiana, Texas, and Tennessee alone.

Bartle Massey, the schoolmaster in 'Adam Bede,' declares: "Women have no headpiece; it runs either to fat or to brats." Granting with the satirical Bartle, that much of woman's brain power is lost on "fat and brats," I think that in local politics men are better informed, because they participate in it; but on the great questions of the science of government, women are, if well educated, at the present day as really profound in their knowledge as men are. "D." says "my education has been desultory," and adds: "I assure you, in all frankness, that I rarely meet a man, either at home or in the North, who is as well 'up' in general politics as myself." Until within the last twenty years, or less, women's education and information were of the same nature as "D.'s," and it is this fact we should do well to consider while discussing this question. The versatility of talent in women is something to be remarked, and, if trained as men are, in some special line, we can readily believe they would succeed where now they fail.

During the three past years my life has been spent in travelling through the United States, and in a way that brought me in close personal acquaintance with many women; and I was delighted and surprised to find how widespread was the interest felt on political questions among women. We need not look far for the reason. Temperance in the last few years has become a political question, and women have perfected organizations all over the Union, and they watch the proceedings of the political world with painful attention. Add to this the large number of women who are advocates of the universal enfranchisement of women, with State and county organizations, and we must see the need of woman's interesting herself in politics. Increased facilities for good education, and the manner in which newspapers are now edited, induce many women who care nothing for either of these movements, to read concerning the political conduct of the marked men of the day, and they gain, as do many men, a superficial knowledge of current political events.

I think "D." will agree with me that nothing will tend toward the intellectual development of the South, the opening of its schools and universities to women, and the general advancement of our people, more than bringing our cultivated and thinking women into communication with each other, as our Northern sisters have done. I was in active correspondence with people all over America for years before my family cares admitted of my having them at my home, and when we did finally meet, we met as old friends. Only yesterday I sent to the *Memphis Appeal* a letter from Thomas Jefferson to Mrs. Katharine Duane Morgan, a daughter of William J. Duane, Secretary of the Treasury under Jackson, and wife of General Morgan who informed against Aaron Burr's scheme. The letter plainly shows that Mrs. Morgan was striving to advance an object of a political nature, and Jefferson heartily approved it. Her granddaughter, Sarah C. Atchison, is as profoundly interested in politics in her quiet home in Denison, Texas, as if she was an active participant in national affairs.

I select the following extract from a letter

bearing on this subject from among a lot of others, written to a Southern lady by the late Dr. John W. Draper. They corresponded for many years:

"DEAR MRS. S.: That the 'Intellectual Development' has been of some help to the cause of progress I am certain. It has passed, as you are aware, through several editions, and has been translated into almost every European language, even Russian. Send me a picture of your young friend who has read it through twice. I should like to see her counterfeit presentment.

I quite agree with you that the future of women will be one of the great problems of the day, in a political and social point of view. I think there is much cause of hope in the mere fact that public attention is now called to the subject, and that means will be found to bring about a great amelioration in female life. In 1839 I invented the process of taking portraits from the life by photography, and I can assure you, my friend, that it is one of my most pleasant reflections, that that process has been the means of giving a suitable and honorable employment to many thousands of women all over the world.

"In reply to your kind urging 'that I write more on this subject,' I can only say that I am very weary of authorship, and must leave its pains and pleasures to others; and among the rising generation of writers among women and men are some who I know will handle this noble subject far better than their predecessors have done.

JOHN W. DRAPER.

"Washington Square, New York, August 12, 1873."

My father taught me that the possession of talent was in itself a forcible command to use it. He held that the parable of the ten talents had a deeper meaning than was generally given it, and regarded disused power on the part of its possessor as a grievous sin against the less fortunate of humanity. Then let "D." see that there is work for her, and all like her, in the South, if we would see our land, of which we hope so much, filled with an intelligent and prosperous people, both white and black.

ELIZABETH L. SAXON.

16 ORLEANS STREET, MEMPHIS, TENN., April 23, 1883.

## Notes.

'DR. CLAUDIUS,' a novel, by F. Marion Crawford, author of 'Mr. Isaacs,' is in the press of Macmillan & Co.

A third and enlarged edition of Mr. Wm. H. Hills' 'Students' Songs' is nearly ready for publication by Moses King, Cambridge, Mass.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. make the following announcements as regards the authorship of the forthcoming volumes of their 'American Men of Letters' series: Emerson, by Dr. O.W. Holmes; Bayard Taylor, by his colleague, J. R. G. Hassard, of the *Tribune*; Benjamin Franklin, by J. B. McMaster; Margaret Fuller, by T. W. Higginson; Edmund Quincy, by S. H. Gay; Bryant, by John Bigelow; and Poe, by George E. Woodberry. Mr. Aldrich's sketches of travel published in the *Atlantic* for some years past will be gathered into a volume called 'From Ponkapog to Pesth.'

Prof. W. G. Sumner's articles on industrial and social topics which have been appearing in *Harper's Weekly*, will be shortly made into a book called 'What our Social Classes owe to each other,' and published by Harper & Bros.

The Messrs. Harper report that their tempting offer of \$3,000 for the best illustration of Alfred Domett's "Christmas Hymn" has resulted in more than 1,700 applications for the text of the poem and the terms of the competition. This will not embarrass the examiners so much as might appear. We think it a matter of regret that the subject is one on which if the last word has not been said pictorially, it is not reasonable to expect a genuine or powerful or very original expression from a youthful designer.

J. W. Bouton will be the American publisher of M. Louis Gense's 'L'Art Japonais,' announced by Quantin in Paris. This important work, undertaken in conjunction with a native expert, promises to relate the history of Japanese art in all its branches as it has never been told before, with fulness and accuracy, abundant biography, and some thousand illustrations of a high order, produced by a great variety of processes, including etching, heliogravure, and chromolithography. The prospectus shows a quarto volume elegantly printed on fine paper. The edition will be limited to 1,400 numbered copies, in two grades.

Bernard Quaritch, 15 Piccadilly, London, has in preparation facsimile illustrations, in photointaglio, of the works of the Italian engravers of the 15th century, by Alfred Dawson, under the direction of the keeper of the prints in the British Museum. These will embrace Botticelli's designs for 'Il Monte Sancto di Dio' (1477), and to the 'Divine Comedy' (1481), and Filippo Lippi's supposed designs for the 'Triumphs' of Petrarch, and much else that is rare and beautiful. The publication will be in parts to subscribers, and the edition very limited. Mr. Quaritch will also have ready in May a small quarto illustrated volume on 'The Fisheries of the Adriatic and the Fish Thereof,' by George L. Faber, British Consul at Fiume.

Mr. Christern has received the prospectus of the 'Allgemeines Historisches Porträtwerk' projected by the Munich house of Friedrich Bruckmann, already noticed by us. The twelve series will occupy about six years in publication. Princes and Popes lead off.

The Supplement to the March-April *Library Journal* contains the first instalment of the Co-operative Index we described a fortnight ago, edited by W. I. Fletcher. It fills 13 pages in double columns. Bookbuyers and students everywhere ought to subscribe to the *Journal*, if only for the sake of this new feature.

President Noah Porter prints in the May number of the *New Englander* his entertaining paper on "The New England Meeting-House," read in December last before the New England Society of Brooklyn. Some portions would bear amplification—e. g., that on the secular uses of the meeting-house, and on the division of seats according to "quality." For instance, the negro pew, which was a common department in the meeting-houses of President Porter's State, goes unmentioned by him.

In the current Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society (vol. ii., No. 2) Senator Hoar indicates the wealth of material for history in the Government archives and the National Library at Washington, and gives a list of prize appeals during the Revolution, whose records are now in the office of the Clerk of the Supreme Court. The same number contains important notes on the history of witchcraft in Massachusetts, by Mr. George H. Moore. These, pointing out certain errors of the best historians, partake of the nature of a vindication of the colony, but now and again one seems to hear a laughing in the sleeve on the part of the writer. Dr. Valentini contributes a learned paper on "The Olmecas and Tultecas" of Mexico; and Mr. Edward G. Porter quotes the earliest known document bearing the name of Washington—a parchment indenture in the Cathedral library at Durham, England. It is referred to the time of King John, about 1200. One of the parties to the agreement is Walter of Weissington. An engraving of the MS. and seal attached is given.

The ruins district of Babylon is the subject of a paper by H. Kiepert in the *Journal of the Berlin Geographical Society*, No. 103. A large colored map, reduced from the British survey of 1861-65, accompanies the text.

Those who have felt the charm of the Tanagra figurines will be interested in the illustrations to the series of articles on the Necropolis of Myrina (Sandarlik), in Mysia, in the current issues of the *Bulletin of the French School at Athens*. Thus there are seven plates in the February and March-April numbers, representing nearly three times as many objects, some of which have perfectly caught the Boeotian style, while others are like nothing which can be studied in this country. These terracottas possess many points of interest, especially in being more or less free copies of Greek masterpieces, and on account of their inscriptions. The latter probably either preserve the makers' names, or serve as directions in compounding the parts of the cast, or again as conventional trade-marks. As connected with the art of printing, it is interesting to find here, also, as in other relics of the ancient world, evidence of the use of stamps for impressing names upon the clay.

Mr. Hamerton discourses of Notre Dame and the Sainte Chapelle in the newest of his Paris series printed in the April number of the *Portfolio*. It is indirectly a plea for the "restorer," and a vindication of our time as the only one that respects the art of former generations.

Parts 71-76 of the chrome edition of 'Brehm's Thierleben' (B. Westermann & Co.) still linger among the mammals, arriving at the ungulates, of which the colored plates are very taking. Still, commend us to the admirable woodcuts for permanent wear.

Three numbers of Mr. Otto Kempner's *Student and Statesman* lie before us. The form of this new journal is that of the *Nation*, which it also recalls by its general make-up. Its avowed object is to organize the young men of the country, without regard to politics, in behalf of a change in the machinery of our Government. The editor's dependence is perhaps mainly placed upon the educated youth, the students at and graduates from our colleges, and he offers his columns as their special medium. He is already aiming to unite them in district societies for the study of political economy in harmony with the efforts of the Society for Political Education. His labors will command the sympathy of the thoughtful. The publication office of the *Student and Statesman* is at 5 Clinton Place, New York city.

A new magazine, possessing a painful and well-nigh universal interest, is the quarterly *American Psychological Journal*, which began with the April number. It is the organ of the National Association for the Protection of the Insane and Prevention of Insanity, is edited by Dr. Joseph Parrish, of Burlington, N. J., and published in Philadelphia by P. Blakiston, Son & Co.

The *Biographer* is the title of a new monthly serial just begun in this city, consisting entirely of short sketches of contemporary notabilities, generally with crude portraits on wood. The medley—which embraces princes and potentates, doctors, artists, revolutionists, journalists, pisciculturists, weather prophets, clergymen, senators, college presidents, prime donne, and new-school pirates—reminds one of nothing so much as the window of the photographic dealer with its strange juxtapositions.

The State of New Jersey paid last year nearly \$9,000 in bounties for the growing of sorghum cane and the manufacture of sugar from it. An interesting account of this "infant industry" is given in the fifth annual report of the State Bureau of Statistics of Labor and Industries, just published. The chapter on the oyster interests concludes with "An Oysterman's Dictionary," largely taken from Ingersoll's "Glossary." The volume is replete with information of more than local value.

The Smithsonian Institution has issued for its Sixteenth Bulletin a "Synopsis of the Fishes of North America," by David S. Jordan and Charles H. Gilbert, of Indiana University. A small portion of this valuable catalogue was prepared in the spring of 1879. As now completed, it occupies, with the index, more than a thousand pages 8vo. The editors make liberal acknowledgment to a large number of scientists for friendly assistance, and state their aim to have been to do for American ichthyology what Dr. Elliott Coues has done for ornithology in his 'Key to North American Birds.' They announce as nearly ready for publication a 'Bibliography of American Ichthyology,' by Professor Goode.

No. 25 of the Professional Papers of the Corps of Engineers, U. S. A., is a report on the "Practice in Europe with the Heavy Armstrong, Woolwich, and Krupp Rifled Guns," with diagrams.

"Planting Trees in School Grounds" is made the subject of an excellent letter, full of sound advice in regard to ornamenting the grounds of rural school-houses, addressed by Dr. Franklin B. Hough to Commissioner Eaton, and published by the National Bureau of Education. The value of school-house grounds as places of recreation may, in nine cases out of ten, be greatly improved by a judicious planting of trees; and these, if properly selected, can be made to play an important part in increasing throughout the community a much-needed love and knowledge of our native trees. Dr. Hough well explains what trees should be chosen for this purpose and how they may be best planted. His letter should be widely read by the members of school boards and other town officials.

George Bell & Sons, London, have added to the Bohn Standard Library a volume containing 'Goethe's Miscellaneous Travels' (New York: Scribner & Welford). It contains a reprint of the 'Swiss Journey,' a revised translation of the 'Campaign in France in 1792 and the Siege of Metz,' originally made by Mr. Farie, and the 'Tour on the Rhine, Main, and Neckar' in 1814 and 1815, now first translated into English by Miss L. Dora Schmitz. This volume forms a valuable continuation of the series. Goethe's wonderful power of minute observation, and the happy objectivity which characterized his life, are admirably illustrated in this volume. It is not easy to see, however, why Goethe's 'Swiss Journey' in 1797, with his interesting visits to Frankfort, Heidelberg, and the South German cities, should have been omitted from the present work. Its insertion would have given completeness to this record of his minor travels. It would have been well, also, to prefix to the 'Tour on the Rhine' Goethe's own account of the occasion of that trip, with his description of the cities visited and the various art collections, which he published in the *Morgenblatt*, and which properly forms an introduction to 'Kunst und Alterthum.' The notes which the translator has added are taken from Dr. Strehlke's edition of the Travels, and will be found useful.

Julius Eckardt, the well-known author of 'Aus der Petersburger Gesellschaft' and other valuable works on Russian subjects, has been falsely credited with so many anonymous books on Russia that he has felt compelled to disclaim publicly the authorship of 'Livland und Irland,' a work just published by Duncker & Humblot in Leipzig. He takes occasion to say at the same time, in his letter to a German paper, that he has had no hand in other books on Russian and Baltic affairs, announced by the same firm as in press, which have in advance been attributed to him by various newspapers.

Berthold Auerbach's correspondence with his cousin, Jacob Auerbach, a scholar residing at

Frankfort-on-the-Main, is shortly to be published by Cotta. The letters extend over a period of forty years, and will in a measure possess the interest of a diary, touching as they do upon personal as well as literary incidents in the novelist's life. The posthumous works of Auerbach are said to be considerable. Westermann's *Monats-Hefte* for April contains a short fragment of his, entitled "Ingenieure oder die Cyklopenbäuerin," which in its conception is a most original literary production. It is in the form of letters to himself written by a young woman, who criticises his literary characteristics and poetic creations, more especially his peasants, whom, from personal experience, she pronounces altogether unreal. The fragment is in its author's best manner, and reveals a rich fund of humorous self-criticism, but it possesses a fatal defect—its criticism is too just; much of it may be seriously applied to Auerbach's best work. One cannot help reflecting what would have been the effect on the 'Dorfgeschichten'—on which, after all, his fame mainly rests—if his criticism on them had been expanded into a work of greater dimensions. We suspect, therefore, that few of his admirers will regret that he abandoned his scheme. Some disappointment seems to be inseparable from every posthumous publication.

Almost contemporaneous with the beginning in *Harper's* of James de Mille's posthumous 'Castle in Spain,' comes the republication in Paris, in the cheap "Collection Michel Lévy," of the French adaptation of his 'American Baron,' made by M. Louis Ulbach.

'L'Expédition de la *Jeannette* au Pôlé Nord, racontée par tous les membres de l'expédition,' is the title of a recent French work in two volumes, translated by M. Jules Geslin from the various letters and journals published in the New York *Herald* (Paris: Dreyfous; New York: F. W. Christern).

—"Œuvre de Saint-Jérôme" is the name of a French organization recently established for the purpose of preserving and publishing the linguistic productions of missionaries inhabiting foreign lands. Since many of these become irreparably lost after the decease of their authors, not a few missionaries have been discouraged from writing anything in or upon the languages spoken by their pagan proselytes as long as there was no certainty of ever seeing their productions printed in a correct and adequate shape. The Society also proposes to supply the schools of the natives with text-books, provided the manuscripts be sent in by the missionaries. The Minister of Public Instruction and the French Institute regard this undertaking as worthy of their aid; the administrator of the French missions in Central Polynesia, Mgr. Lamaze, has declared his readiness to contribute by literary work. One of the founders, Rev. Mr. Grézel, has published a dictionary of the language spoken on Futuna Island; another founder, Rev. Violette, is the author of a Samoan grammar and dictionary (Paris, 1879, 8vo, 92 and 468 pages), and of some religious texts in the same language. Before us is a volume published by the Society itself, of which the Abbé Bouche is the author: 'Les Noirs peints par eux-mêmes' (Paris: Poussielgue Frères, 1883, 8vo, 144 pages). The learned missionary of the Slave Coast, Western Africa, has concealed under this queer superscription a very attractive collection of proverbs, riddles, conundrums, and other folk-lore in the Nago language spoken around Abbeokuta. It is accompanied by a French translation with copious notes.

—M. Renan's last publication, a stenographic reproduction of a lecture on Jews and Judaism—'Le Judaïsme comme race et comme religion'—

delivered on January 27, 1883, before the Cercle Saint-Simon in Paris, is very small in compass, but highly attractive. Its style, less finished and poetically ornate than that of most of his writings, is exceedingly pleasing from its chaste simplicity. A stronger and more unalloyed sympathy for its subject, the people and faith of Israel, breathes through its pages than we have ever met with in his former writings on kindred topics. They unmistakably reflect an admixture with his warm love for the Scriptures and their authors, and with his general philanthropy, of a feeling of regret at having formerly propounded race notions not entirely dissimilar to those which color the present anti-Semitic literature on the other side of the Rhine. He now not only sees the Hebrew nation of old in a more favorable light than when he wrote his 'Origins of Christianity' or his 'History of the Semitic Languages,' but he has also reached the conclusion—and this is the main point of his dissertation—that the modern Jews are far from being as purely Semitic by descent as is generally believed. Our Paris letter, on another page, dispenses us from following his argument in detail. Renan's conclusion is that the modern Jews are more strictly a denomination than a race. Were this proved, it would be a terrible truth to such Israelites as are still proud of their direct descent from Abraham and Sarah, and also to that branch of the anti-Semitic crusaders who found their gospel of persecution not on the old beliefs of the Jews, which so many of them disavow, but on the indelible blood taint of Semitism. Fortunately for both these classes, however, M. Renan's arguments are far from convincing. The positive evidences in their favor which he pointed out in the ancient writers are too scanty, and in some instances prove but little. The converted Khazars, Arabs, and Abyssinians have remained without influence upon the great bulk of the Jews, the Europeans especially. The strict anti-proselytizing spirit of the Talmud is well known. And the great, though far from complete, uniformity of Jewish national characteristics—physical, mental, and moral—is also an argument against M. Renan's theory, which his interesting and insinuating remarks on the subject, including observations on the variety of Jewish types, are not sufficient to invalidate.

#### OLE BULL.

*Ole Bull.* A Memoir. By Sara C. Bull. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883.

THERE are two features in the early life of prominent composers and executive musicians that recur with curious frequency. The first is an early interest in music, which often manifests itself amid comic impediments; the second, the opposition of the parents, who are usually perversely bent on forcing some other than a musical career on their child. Ole Bull was no exception to this rule. When he was a mere child his Uncle Jens used to arrange for an occasional quartet soirée at the house of Ole's parents. On these occasions Ole was repeatedly discovered under a sofa or table, where he had concealed himself for hours, only to be ignominiously sent to bed again, after a whipping for disobedience. Notwithstanding the fact that the old rector who first gave him Latin lessons said to him: "Take to your fiddle in earnest, boy, and don't waste your time here," Ole's father wished him to become a clergyman, and intrusted him to a tutor who declared his musical tastes incompatible with his studies and forbade him to play the violin; "and thus the boy could only indulge at night in an inclination that now, under this restraint, became a passion." But one morning, when this tyrannous tutor came to drag one of his brothers out of bed at a very early hour,

Ole's patience gave way. He attacked Musæus, and, after a violent struggle, felled him. This anecdote is here cited because it illustrates his extraordinary muscular strength, which had not a little to do with enabling him subsequently to execute those *tours de force* on three and four strings which so astonished his audiences. The Danish poet Oehlenschläger states in a letter that "his arms were like steel, and it is very possible that it was his excessive physical strength which occasionally interrupted the tender tones, while he shook his head so that his hair fell down into his beautiful brown eyes."

After three years' study under his tutor, Ole went, in 1828, to the University of Christiania, where he did not remain very long, however, as we meet him a year later at Cassel, whither he had gone to visit Spohr. "I have come more than 500 miles to hear you," he said to the great violinist, who coolly replied: "Very well, you can now go to Nordhausen; I am to attend a musical festival there." When, at Nordhausen, he at last heard Spohr, he was disappointed. The polished refinements of a traditional art evidently did not appeal to the taste of a youth who had grown up listening to the voices of Nature, practising with his six brothers on select sea-shells of different tones, and composing melodies to imitate the winds in the trees, the call of birds, the murmuring of brooks, and the roar of waterfalls. In 1831 he went to Paris in order to hear De Bériot, Baillot, Paganini, and Berlioz. When he arrived the cholera was raging, the revolutionary excitement had not yet subsided, and the young musician soon found himself penniless, as his efforts to get a position at the Grand Opéra and other places were not attended with success. Suicidal thoughts tormented him, he was attacked by brain fever, and might have fared ill had it not been for the kindness of Mme. Villemain, at whose house he had secured lodgings, and whose daughter Alexandrine afterward became his wife.

After his recovery he made a concert tour in Switzerland and Italy, where he was recognized as a "rough diamond," who often marred the music he played by adding something of his own—a practice, however, which in those days was common enough. Even Liszt indulged in this vicious habit, and Berlioz tells a good story of one of his orchestral musicians who insisted on embellishing his part with additions of his own. Berlioz remonstrated with him, and he kept quiet at the last rehearsal; but at the concert, when Berlioz was helpless, he put them all in again. Ole Bull's first appearance at the Grand Opéra in Paris was marked by several mishaps. He stumbled in coming upon the stage and had to run on headlong to save himself from falling. In the midst of one of his pieces the A string snapped, which compelled him to transpose and finish the movement on three strings—a feat that was loudly applauded by an audience which included Meyerbeer. It was one of Ole Bull's maxims: "If you have the audience under your spell, never break it by a change of instruments, even for a broken string." At some of his Parisian concerts he had the cooperation of Liszt and Chopin; and through his friendship with the latter he came to figure in one of George Sand's works, her "Malgré tout." Among the other distinguished people with whom he came in contact were Mendelssohn, who dined with him in Leipzig and afterward played with him the Kreutzer sonata, to dedicate a valuable violin just acquired by Bull; Rossini, who showed him various favors; Moore, who wrote out and sang for him some of his melodies which Bull wished to use at his concerts; Hans Christian Andersen, who was one of his intimate friends and correspondents; and Paganini, who at their first meeting, to Bull's surprise, "spoke

of his illness and troubles, and the persecution of the critics; in short, he treated him as if he were an old and confidential friend." He praised Bull's individuality of style and foretold his brilliant career. In 1874 Count Cessole, in whose arms Paganini died, "gave Ole Bull a letter to Paganini's son requesting him to show him the manuscript of an unpublished concerto of his father's, adding that he was the only person capable of doing it justice." For Malibran, we are told, Bull felt an admiration approaching idolatry; nor did Malibran fail in her esteem of the violinist. One day, when he was playing at her house, in presence of De Bériot, she said, "He has a much sweeter tone than you, De Bériot"; and could not be convinced that the superiority lay in the violin. Malibran's death, which was caused by a hemorrhage—the result of forcing a very high note and holding it for a very long time in order to outdo a rival and astonish the public—throws a curious light on one of the degrading forms of virtuosity prevalent at that period, and unhappily not yet extinct.

It is as a remarkable virtuoso rather than a great artist that Ole Bull will be remembered. According to all accounts he possessed some of the weird fascination of Paganini over his audiences, and a very large share of his wonderful technical facility. But while his playing usually "carried away" the masses, it did not fully satisfy the connoisseurs and critics to whom art stands above virtuosity. M. Fétis says that in 1818 he heard Bull play in a manner so touching and expressive as to justify his claiming a place among the foremost artists. He adds, however, that the reproach of charlatanism often brought against him was not without some foundation: "Great factitious needs and his excessive vanity often made him sacrifice his art and his own feelings to the desire to please the bad taste of his audience." "He told me himself laughingly that an extravagant caprice which he had entitled 'Beef Eaten by a Tiger' excited such enthusiasm in the United States that he derived from it a profit of \$60,000." The following extracts, from an article by Dr. Hanslick, written in 1858, will give a good idea of the estimate in which the best German critics held the Norwegian violinist:

"Ole Bull has lived for years as a farmer in North America, and now, after having been almost forgotten, he reappears in Europe. But either we have become more practical in life or more idealistic in art—the appearance of Ole Bull has retained little of its old charm. . . . To-day, as twenty years ago, he plays only compositions of his own. Unless we are greatly mistaken, they are even the very same pieces. To be edified by these thoughtless and formless fantasies, however, can hardly be expected of any one. In former times it was customary to interpret a certain artistic darkness in these compositions as sublimity and depth, and to characterize as 'genuinely Northern' things which one did not feel justified in admiring as good music. . . . The same tricks are sure to recur in every work of this virtuoso. There are especially two of these for which he shows a striking preference: harmonics and playing on several strings at once. Both are treated by Ole Bull with unflinching accuracy and purity; but by composing interminable and insignificant passages exclusively for harmonics and for several strings he renders the hearer callous to these effects. More brilliant still are his staccato runs, which he executes equally well with up and down bow. His tone is beautifully soft, but becomes occasionally wailing in an *adagio*. The whole character of his playing is antiquated, and it requires all the amiable personality of Ole Bull to infuse into it an occasional and at least seeming vitality."

This "amiable personality" had much to do with his popularity, and it is attested on all sides, among others by Helmholtz, who wrote in a letter dated 1881: "I was much impressed by his personal character; he was at the same time so enthusiastic and so intelligent, interested in all

the great problems of humanity." His enthusiasm often took the form of ardent patriotism, which was fostered by his love of national song and mythology, and led him in 1848 to found a national theatre at Bergen—a "Norwegian theatre with a Norse orchestra," which he himself led when the theatre was opened two years later. Having become involved in difficulties with the local authorities, he made his second trip to America (the first having occurred in 1846), and here founded his Norwegian colony in Pennsylvania, which emptied his purse of what the national theatre and his numerous contributions to churches, libraries, etc., had left in it. To exchange one continent for another was of course a mere trifle for a travelling virtuoso like Bull. He even visited Africa, and an account is given by Adolf Ebeling ("Bilder aus Kairo") of a romantic feat that was accomplished at Cairo. In company with some friends, Bull ascended a pyramid, and, having arrived at the summit, took his violin, which a Bedouin had carried up for him wrapped in a silk handkerchief, and played a "hymn of praise" under the inspiration of a scene in which the green valley of the Nile offered an artistic contrast to the boundless "golden deserts" and the Libyan Mountains. He had also a vein for fun which sometimes took on a rather odd form. Once, on board a steamer, he had displeased his friend Oehlenschläger by a too severe criticism of the Swedes. To effect a reconciliation he subsequently crawled up to the poet on all fours and barked at him like a dog. Another time, when he was getting shaved at Hartford, the bootblack played several tunes on a violin. Bull took the instrument and played a series of harmonics, to the lad's great astonishment, and then gave him a ticket to his concert. When it was over, the boy came up to him and said: "Mister, can't you come down to the shop to-morrow to get shaved and show me those tricks? I feel powerful bad." His request was granted.

Ole Bull's knowledge of the anatomy of the violin was no less remarkable than his technical skill. Even in his early boyhood he had learned the construction of his instrument by taking it to pieces and then putting the parts together again. Later in life he spent much of his time repairing violins for his friends, and "it sometimes seemed as if he were happier at work on an old decrepit fiddle, which he saw could be restored, than when playing on his own superb instrument." "Through every nook and corner of Italy," says Mrs. Lydia Maria Child, "he sought for new varieties of his favorite instrument, as eagerly as an Oriental merchant seeks for rare pearls. He had tried all manner of experiments; he knew at sight the tuneful qualities of every species of wood, and precisely how the slightest angle or curve in the fashion of an instrument would affect the sound." He had a fine collection of old violins, but the one which he especially valued was three centuries old. For a long time he was unable to obtain a sounding-post of sufficiently old and "vibrated" wood to match it, until he discovered a very old double-bass in a Philadelphia theatre which had the desired quality. Through an accommodating accident on the stage this double-bass was crushed, whereupon Bull eagerly bought the pieces and constructed the long-sought post—i.e., the little stick which supports the sounding-board or belly of the instrument. The members of the violin family have one advantage over other instruments: they improve with age. One of the problems which exercised Ole Bull was to effect such a change in the structure of the piano as to make it resemble the violin and prevent it from losing its beauty of tone after being in use for a few years. The first piano made after his plans cost \$15,000, but did not please him al-

together, whereupon another was made which proved more satisfactory.

Some interesting information in regard to the history of the violin, the famous Italian makers, the "lost varnish," and the best way of making the various component parts of the instrument are given in Bull's *Violin Notes*—a short treatise of about thirty pages appended to Mrs. Bull's *Memoir*. They include an excellent analysis of Paganini's playing. Excepting a few of his compositions, this is almost the only thing of value, so far as we are aware, that Ole Bull has bequeathed to posterity in black and white. Those of his letters which are printed in the present memoir are extremely personal and dry. It is to be regretted that he did not, like Berlioz and Gottschalk, for instance, keep a record of his travels in the form of a diary. As he was "interested in all the great problems of humanity," such a diary would have had a social as well as æsthetic and music-historical value. Of the *Memoir* itself it must be said that it would be much pleasanter reading if it were pitched half an octave lower. It would be unreasonable to demand absolute objectivity of a relative, but then it is not necessary for the latter to represent her hero as a sort of angel with fourteen wings, and as one of the most genuinely inspired artists that ever lived. The faith of the reader is sometimes severely tested, as when he is told that Bull "was offered £800 for one night in Liverpool," or that he declined an order and some jewels offered him by a king. But the book is written in an easy, pleasant style, and as it contains, besides a good index, several technical appendices, it will be a welcome addition to any musician's library.

#### RAWLINSON'S ANCIENT RELIGIONS.

*The Religions of the Ancient World*, including Egypt, Assyria and Babylonia, Persia, India, Phœnicia, Etruria, Greece, Rome. By George Rawlinson, M.A., Camden Professor of Ancient History, Oxford, and Canon of Canterbury. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1883.

THERE is a great and growing appetite on the part of the general public for small books on the principal subjects of modern research. Such "primers," whether intended for children in schools or for the educated laity at large, should be written either by specialists in the various departments, or by compilers well acquainted with the most recent literature and not wedded to any theory. It is particularly desirable that errors of detail and sweeping generalizations should be avoided in these little treatises, for the reason that the mass of the reading public are likely to pin their faith to them, especially when they appear on the authority of a man high in position. Prof. Rawlinson is well suited in some respects to prepare a manual on the national religions of the ancient world. He is a veteran student of the subject and a prolific author; his "Herodotus" took him in a general way over much of the ground, and in his "Five Great Monarchies" and his "History of Egypt" he has devoted a good deal of space to the three first religions named on the title-page of his present work. But he has not produced as good a book as we had the right to expect. Much of what he says is correct and valuable, and his whole presentation is an advance on preceding popular books of the sort; but his work is disfigured by inaccuracies, and especially by a dogged sort of dogmatism which obscures his subject at every step. The explanation of this seems to be that he has not always consulted the latest writers on his subject, and that he is irreconcilably hostile to certain lines of modern scientific thought.

It is interesting to see how differently the

"fashion of the day" is understood by different minds. In some quarters we are told that our age is materialistically given up to the worship of facts. Rawlinson, on the other hand, in his introduction, declares that at the present day "to deal with facts is thought to be a humdrum and commonplace employment of the intellect—conjecture is found to be more amusing than induction, and an ingenious hypothesis to be more attractive than a proved law" (pp. 2, 3); and this indictment is brought against astronomers, physicists, biologists, and students of comparative philology and of religion. It is a serious charge, which, it is to be hoped, is not strictly true. But, as our author thinks it true, it is all the more surprising to find him, in the course of the book, indulging in the speculation that he so strongly condemns. For example, he feels able to say (p. 105) that no conscious monotheism lay behind the religion of the early Indians at its first formation, and then to explain (p. 106) how the monotheism which he says they undoubtedly at one time possessed was so completely forgotten. It does not appear by what process he obtained this accurate knowledge of the "first formation" of the Hindu religion. And is it a pleasant when, in the introduction also, he says that he has omitted the religion of the Jews "as sufficiently well known to all educated persons" (p. 4)? We had supposed that most educated persons were rather distinguished by their ignorance of the real nature of the early Jewish religion, and we must regret that no mention is made of it here, where a comparison with neighboring faiths would be particularly interesting and instructive. In general he is untroubled by doubts as to his results: "It is confidently believed," he says, "that further research and study will only supplement, and not contradict, the views which are here put forward."

The best part of the book seems to be that devoted to the Greek and Roman religions. Without going far beneath the surface, the author gives the principal facts of their mythologies in clear and easy style, and not without sympathetic appreciation of their ideas. In other parts—particularly in the chapters on the Assyrian and Babylonian, Phœnician and Persian faiths—he makes a number of incorrect or unproved statements. Thus, the existence of a god Il in Babylonia (p. 37) is exceedingly doubtful. In all the places where it occurs it seems possible to regard Il or El as the word for deity in general, as it is in the Hebrew and Phœnician systems. The place assigned to Anu, Bel, and Hea in execrations (p. 40) is not accurate. Often these three are not named at all, or only one or two of them are named—e. g., in Tiglathpileser 8, 74, the "great gods" invoked in the curse are Anu and Raman; and in the Sargon-cylinder, l. 77, the deities called on are Assur, Samas, and Raman. The great deity Assur, the father of the gods, is not doomed to celibacy, as Rawlinson states (p. 50), but has for wife Belit (Beltis), who, in 5 Rawl. x. 26, 27, is called "mother of the great gods, beloved wife of Assur." The name of the "messenger of the gods" who figures in the war of the seven evil spirits against the moon-god is not Paku, as Rawlinson quotes (pp. 58, 59) from Fox Talbot's translation ('Records of the Past,' v. 165), but Nusku, who later became one of the great gods, and always stands last in the frequently occurring list of twelve great deities in the great inscription of Assurbanipal (5 Rawl. i. x.). Rawlinson's account of the Babylonian ideas of a future state appears to be very fanciful. The hitherto prevailing view has been that the other world was for the Assyrians and Babylonians simply a cold and gloomy abode, where the dead, good and bad, existed as inactive shades, conscious only of the

privation of the delights of earthly life. Rawlinson speaks (pp. 62, 63) of a separation between good and bad, of the former as dwelling in the presence of the gods, clad in radiant garments and partaking of celestial food, while the latter suffer different and appropriate punishments. But Fox Talbot's translations, on which this picture of the happiness of the good is based (Trans. Soc. Bibl. Archaeol. ii. 31, 32, 'Records of the Past,' iii. 135), are so arbitrary, putting in just the ideas in question, that to draw any conclusion from them would be in the highest degree unwise. Throughout Rawlinson puts too implicit faith in the Assyrian translations of the 'Records of the Past,' many of which are known to be inaccurate. For what he says of the appropriate punishments of the different classes of the bad he gives no reference, and we doubt whether the monuments offer any such information.

In the chapter on the Phœnician religion, we miss, above all, the comparison with the Babylonian-Assyrian. Though it is once or twice remarked that some Phœnician divine name occurs in the Babylonian pantheon, there is no hint of any community of origin between the two religions (between his accounts of the two he interposes the chapters on the Hindu and Persian systems), though the resemblances are striking enough to provoke comparison. The materials contained in Philo Byblus are dismissed too summarily as untrustworthy (p. 131); the essays of Renan, Lenormant, and others have brought something like order out of Philo's apparent chaos, and his work is at any rate worthy of careful study. On the other hand, Rawlinson is too positive in respect to the characters and functions of the little-known Phœnician deities. The Phœnician El is as doubtful as the Babylonian Il; and we should expect at least some reference to the opinion, ably set forth by Tiele in his recent book on the Egyptian and Semitic religions, that Baal and Adon are not proper names, but titles, of divinities. We can thus explain not only "Baal shamayim," the "lord of heaven," but also "Baal-hamman," the "lord of the sun," which Rawlinson (pp. 139, 151) continues to represent as an identification of Baal with the Egyptian Amon! He rightly regards Moloch as probably a mere title (p. 146), and Dagon as rather a corn-god than a fish-god (p. 142). It is strange that he can speak of Tammuz (p. 143) without hinting at any relation between him and the Babylonian Dummuz. Two other things that he says may excite surprise, but for a different reason: the Phœnicians he calls a Semitic people (p. 133), and he explains the second element of the name Melchizedek as Sadyk, a Phœnician deity; but one does not see how he can then maintain the ethnographical authority of the table of nations in the tenth chapter of Genesis, where the Phœnicians are reckoned among the Hamites, or the philological accuracy of the epistle to the Hebrews, where Melchizedek is said to mean "king of righteousness" instead of "Sadyk (or, the Righteous One) is my king."

Rawlinson's main authorities on Zoroastrism are Max Müller and Haug; besides these, he cites Brockhaus, Windischmann, Westergaard, Hübschmann, and Spiegel each once, and mentions the name of Burnouf, but says nothing of Roth, Geldner, De Harlez, or Darmesteter. What he here gives is, in fact, simply an abridgment of his chapter on the Median religion in his 'Ancient Monarchies,' vol. ii., published in 1871; he seems to have read nothing on the subject since. Thus, he calls the sacred book of the Persians the "Zendavesta," which name, he says, "can scarcely be now displaced" (p. 80), though, as a matter of fact, "Avesta" has now come into general use. Perhaps, also, if he had consulted recent writers, he would be less posi-

tive in his description of the Persian religion. One does not expect long processes of investigation in such a manual as this, but one may expect to be informed where the results are markedly uncertain. The unwary reader will find himself in evil case if he accepts, for example, what our author says of Zoroaster (pp. 78, 79), that, according to one account (Berosus), he was a Median king who conquered Babylon about B.C. 2458 (Berosus will not be quite sure of the date), but by another account, which is "more probable, and rests on better authority" (Her-mippus, Justin, Ammianus Marcellinus, and Moses Chorenensis), he was a Bactrian, who, "at a date not quite so remote" (for Berosus's date would, in fact, carry us back to the Flood), came forward to teach a new religion. And Rawlin-son does not intimate by a word that there are modern scholars who wholly reject both these accounts. He himself seems to rest contented with the "more probable" of the two, and the thence deducible little biography of Zoroaster. Further, he informs us with equal positiveness (p. 93) that "the original religion of the Iranians was Dualism of a very pronounced type," and that it "became corrupted after a time by an admixture of the foreign superstitions of Magism, or the worship of the elements" (p. 97). As the whole history of the development of Mazdeism is in debate, the author might somewhere have put a note of interrogation, as he could easily have done without abandoning the form of a simple manual for lay readers.

Rawlinson says, and not without right, that, in the space he has allowed himself, he could not trace each religion historically from its first appearance to its last phase, and he therefore limits himself to presenting each in the aspect which it wore at the full completion of its natural and national development (p. 239). We do not find fault with this general restriction, though it has its difficulties—for where are we to place the "complete natural and national development" of the early Sanskrit Indian religion, or the Iranian, or the Phœnician?—but we regret the hard dogmatic tone that characterizes the book where the author finds himself forced to depart from his plan and say something of the development of ideas. In his "Concluding Remarks," after saying that the time is not yet come for the construction of a Science of Religion (in which opinion no scholar will differ with him), he proceeds to lay down several fundamental principles of such a science—namely, the various religions have had not one origin, but several distinct origins; the Hebrew religion could not have originated from any of the religions here treated of; the sacred books of the Hebrews cannot possibly have been derived from the sacred writings of any of these nations; progress has been from monotheism to polytheism, and not in the reverse direction; the most probable theory is the existence of a primitive religion, communicated to man from without, whereof monotheism and expiatory sacrifice were parts, and the gradual clouding over of this primitive revelation everywhere, unless it were among the Hebrews. Here is certainly a very fair outline of a Science of Religion, of which, however, the author offers no proof at all in his preceding chapters. We judge, therefore, that his objection is to Sciences of Religion as constructed by other men, and differing from his own.

#### THE BLOCKADE IN THE CIVIL WAR.

*The Blockade and the Cruisers.* By J. Russell Soley, Professor in the United States Navy. [The Navy in the Civil War. Vol. I.] Chas. Scribner's Sons.

In the war of the Rebellion the Volunteers came from every village and hamlet, and car-

ried with them the sympathy of every community. The military operations were on such an imposing scale that they dazzled the public eye and tended to blind it to the bearing of the navy. Much has been written, and well written, of the operations on land, but, after all, it must be allowed that they added little new to the science of war. With the service on the sea it was very different. This made the war an epoch of the first interest and consequence. It marked a transition in means and methods of naval warfare greater than the world has ever known, except perhaps when oars were exchanged for sails, or gunpowder was substituted for bows and spears. Indeed, the change is not yet comprehended, or even perhaps completed, and Christendom seems to be waiting in suspense, not knowing how to fortify its harbors and cities, or what engines they and its ships are to be called on to encounter.

At the beginning of the Rebellion, the fact that sailing-vessels were already obsolete was not generally recognized; for, though war-steamer had been used for the first time in the Mexican war, they did not meet sufficient opposition for their advantages to be conspicuous. Horizontal shell-firing with large calibres was hardly ten years old, and for this our Dahlgren guns were the best in existence. Rifled guns, rams, and torpedoes were rare experiments. Armored vessels, also, were in their trial stage. They had received most attention in England and France, but our navy had had no experience with them. All of these novelties were now eagerly availed of by both sides, and pushed to a rapid and great development. The result was a service calling for quickness of apprehension, resource, energy, and scientific knowledge. The change suddenly rendered half the vessels in the navy practically useless, and a considerable proportion of older officers as well. As our author says: "A captain that fought the Invincible Armada would have been more at home in a war-ship of 1840 than a captain in 1840 in the advanced types of the civil war. In 1861, many officers were in command of steamers who had never served in one before, and who were far more anxious about their boilers than about their enemy."

Till this war, our Government, proud of its naval history in the Revolution, in Africa, and especially in the war of 1812, and with a flourishing mercantile marine to draw from, had kept up the navy to a high standard. The number of ships was not large, but each successive class of vessels launched was of the best. It was also prompt to recognize the importance of the adoption of steam. The *Pouchatan* and *Susquehanna*—side-wheelers, to be sure—"at the time they were launched in 1850, were the most efficient naval vessels afloat." The fine screw frigates built in 1855, including the *Niagara*, *Colorado*, *Roanoke*, *Minnesota*, and *Merrimac*—the last of which afterward became so famous in the Confederacy—"were regarded all the world over as the model men-of-war of the period." This wise tradition seems to have been since forgotten. But considering the unsatisfactory results of the lavish expenditures of other nations for iron-clad cruisers, and the tremendous possibilities of torpedoes and electricity, perhaps the backwardness of this country in naval architecture since 1865 may not prove so unfortunate as is generally thought.

The first service the navy was called on to perform in the war was to establish the blockade. This was a task of great difficulty; a blockade of such extent had never been attempted before. It involved closing 3,000 miles of coast, much of it with an inland sea and double line of shore, with many inlets, and with nearly all its harbors in the hands of the enemy. In some places it

necessitated riding out storms at anchor off a lee shore, where such action had formerly been considered hopeless. It compelled increasing the number of officers till it equalled the whole complement of the navy before the war. The seamen were increased to more than fifty thousand. The number of vessels grew in proportion, by construction and purchase, so that on one station in February, 1865, were collected as many as comprised the entire number in commission two years before. The blockade at once brought up the question of the status of the Confederacy. The claim of our Government was that the blockade was simply a domestic embargo; that subjects of the Confederacy were rebels, and its ships-of-war pirates; and this view was for some time adhered to and asserted on paper. But a blockade is essentially an act of war. The size of the Rebellion, its completely organized government, and the certainty of reprisals, made our position untenable in practice, and almost from the beginning the laws of war were observed as in a foreign war. This subject is discussed with some fulness by Professor Soley, and, with the admirable justice which characterizes his book, he shows that the unfriendliness of England was shown more by her haste to recognize the Confederacy as a belligerent than by the recognition itself.

The experiences of the blockading squadrons are given in detail—in Chesapeake Bay, on the Atlantic coast, and in the Gulf. On one side were ceaseless vigilance and prolonged inaction, while the daring, ingenuity, and romance, as usual, were with the weaker party. This blockade was very stringent, and constantly growing more so to the end. From an opponent who may be said to have had no marine were brought in as prizes more than one thousand vessels, while half as many more were destroyed. The value of these vessels and their cargoes was \$31,000,000—probably more than the destruction by navy and privateers combined in the war of 1812, which was waged against a commercial nation.

The principal naval action immediately connected with the blockade and the attempts to break it was that of the *Monitor* and *Merrimac*. The story is familiar, but we do not remember a more intelligible and detailed account than the one here given. Among the curious statistics is the fact that the *Monitor*, in her flight of four hours at such short range that she several times almost touched her antagonist, was only hit twenty-one times, or an average of once in twelve minutes. The providential arrival of the *Monitor* on the very eve of the day when she was needed to save the rest of the fleet of men-of-war and transports in Hampton Roads, to maintain the blockade, and to assure the doubtful blessing of the advance of McClellan's army from Fort Monroe, is well known; but the perils of her passage from New York—twice as great as the danger in action, and seeming doubled again to the brave men cooped up in her, from the novelty of the risk—are not so well known. "Many experienced officers doubted seriously her ability to keep afloat in any but the calmest weather—an opinion which the *Monitor's* subsequent career fully justified." In fact, she foundered the next time she went to sea. "If she sank, she would sink quickly, and there was small chance" of escape. She started from New York about noon on Thursday, towed by a tug and escorted by two gunboats. She got along comfortably till the afternoon of Friday, when the sea rose and began to come aboard. Soon it was breaking over her smoke-stack and blower-pipe, and caused the blower-bands to slip and break. This stopped the draught, filled the furnace-room with gas, made the men there unconscious, and rendered the engines use-

less for either propelling or pumping. The men were set to pump and bail, and the tug headed for the shore. In five hours smoother water was reached, damages repaired, and the engine started slowly again. About midnight the *Monitor* ran into another heavy sea. The wind was too high to hail the tug, and no provision had been made for signalling at night. While the danger was increasing, the wheel-ropes jammed, and the vessel became unmanageable and began to sheer about wildly. Fortunately, the tow-rope held. Half an hour repaired the injury. For several hours the position was critical. At daylight the tug was ordered in-shore, and at 8 A. M. the danger was past. Hardly was the *Monitor* in smooth water when the hawser which had saved her parted. At nine that evening she anchored near the *Roanoke*, two hours after the *Merrimac* had closed her triumphant day's work.

In the next day's fight Lieut. S. D. Greene had command of the turret and guns, with no means of receiving orders from Lieut. Worden except by passing the word. He was shut up in a revolving turret on a moving platform. The ports could only be opened to fire. The marks on the stationary flooring which showed the line of the ship were soon obliterated, and after one or two revolutions of the turret "it was impossible to guess at the direction of the ship or the position of the enemy. . . . At last the difficulties became so great, the revolutions so confusing, and the mechanism governing the movements of the turret so little under control, that it was left stationary, and the ship was fought and the guns pointed by the helm." It is evident that the escape that seemed so marvellous was a very narrow one.

The career of the Confederate cruisers included some of the most stirring episodes of the war, and is told in some detail. It is customary at the North to refer to it as wanton and wicked. This is natural to the victims of it, but not justified by the facts. It does not appear that their course in the main was without law, or that their acts were different from those of all hostile men-of-war. They showed an energy, enterprise, and skill which, apart from the cause they supported, were worthy of high praise and honor. They preyed on an ample commerce, while they had none of their own to defend. Their efficiency is manifest from the injury they worked on the Northern merchant marine, from which it has never recovered.

It was the true policy for the few Confederate cruisers to avoid our war vessels as they did. When they occasionally met them, the conflict was interesting. The *Hatteras* was sunk by the *Alabama* twenty-five miles off Galveston. She was overmatched two to one, and none of her shells burst. She was beaten and surrendered in thirteen minutes, and sank in ten more. On the other hand, the *Weehawken*, an improvement on the original *Monitor*, captured the strong Confederate ironclad *Atlanta* (altered from the English blockade-runner *Fingal*) in fifteen minutes by firing five shots at short range, four of which hit. As Captain Rodgers pithily remarked, the first shot took away the disposition of the *Atlanta* to fight, and the third her ability to get away. An interesting parallel is drawn between this action and that between the *Shannon* and *Chesapeake* in the war of 1812, just fifty years before. In both cases a gallant and popular captain, elated by society praise, with an undisciplined crew, sailed a few miles from port escorted by pleasure boats filled with spectators eager to enjoy his triumph, only to meet after fifteen minutes' fighting utter defeat at the hands of a well-prepared, well-disciplined antagonist. The *Chesapeake*, however, was carried by boarding, with heavy loss. The *At-*

*lanta* surrendered as soon as her vulnerability to fifteen inch shell was discovered.

The most important of these engagements was the action between the *Kearsarge* and *Alabama*. This was particularly gratifying to the North on several accounts. The vessels were a singularly equal match. The *Alabama* had done great damage. She was built in England like an English gunboat, carried among her guns a Blakeley 100 pounder rifle (considered in England the best gun yet made), and many of her crew were Englishmen, so that she was in a measure associated in the popular mind with the ill will that had grown up against England for her unfriendliness and arrogance toward the North in her tribulation. The career of the *Alabama* had not been suited to develop drill or discipline, and here, as before, victory declared for the most thorough preparation and skill. The *Alabama* surrendered in about one hour, and sank in twenty minutes more. The *Kearsarge* only had two boats left with which to take off her prisoners, and the task was hopeless, as the *Alabama* was settling fast. The English yacht *Deerhound* had come out with the *Alabama* to see the fight. Captain Winslow had the right and the power to prevent her interfering with his prize in any way; but the alternative presented itself to him of seeing many of his prisoners drown like rats before his eyes or authorizing the *Deerhound* to save them. A generous man could not hesitate in his decision. Probably without much reflection, he asked the *Deerhound* to help, which it readily did. Captain Winslow apparently expected that the beaten crew would be brought to him, and his indignant officers urged him to shell the *Deerhound* when she made off with them. He very properly refrained. The *Deerhound* could not have surrendered them without incurring a grave responsibility to the Confederate Government, even if she had not been glad of the excuse to liberate them. As soon as the men put foot in her boats they were on English territory, and Captain Winslow could no more take them from them than he could have arrested them afterward in the streets of Liverpool if he had met them there.

This book is well arranged, written clearly, without technical terms, and shows great familiarity with the subject. It is marked by thoroughness of preparation, sound judgment, and admirable impartiality. It is a promising beginning of the projected series; and if the other volumes prove worthy of this, they will make a valuable addition to the army series which has proved so useful and popular.

George Eliot. By Mathilde Blind. [Famous Women Series.] Boston: Roberts Bros.

ASSIDUOUS painstaking deserves its reward, but it ought not to be mistaken for higher and finer qualities. The author of this life of George Eliot has made the most of a few bits of fresh information about her childhood and school-days, and there are besides about a half-dozen of hitherto unpublished letters. A valuable list is given of articles contributed to the reviews of twenty-five years ago, but the account of the *Westminster* is ludicrously inadequate—"not so fashionable as the *Nineteenth Century*." The rest of the book is avowedly taken from sources so near at hand as *Harper's*, *Scribner's*, and the *Contemporary*. Indeed, most readers would have been better satisfied to find the articles themselves reprinted entire. A translation of some of the very interesting foreign (French and German) critiques upon George Eliot would be a positive addition to our rather slender store of good criticism.

Seven chapters are devoted, each to one of the

novels, and an eighth to the poems, making in all two-thirds of the book. In her treatment of them, the author has, it seems to us, entirely mistaken the office of the biographer. A reviewer is justified in presuming that the book before him has been, or may at once be, in the hands of his readers, but the biographer has to describe the life of his subject and his work, be that work a mission or a novel. Instead of clear sketches of the works of George Eliot, such as might impel the new generation to read 'Adam Bede' and 'Silas Marner'—from which, be it remembered, they are almost as far removed as George Eliot herself was from 'Waverley'—we have a wearisome succession of negative criticisms: what she did not do, and what she should not have done. So little has the writer understood the remark which she herself quotes from one of George Eliot's letters: "I would rather impress the public generally with the sense that they may get the best result from a book without necessarily forming an 'opinion' about it, than I would rush into stating opinions of my own." Of the writer's own thought and style, one extract will show equally its platitude and its profundity:

"However vastly a mountain may appear to loom above us from the plain, on ascending to its summit one always finds innumerable lesser eminences which all help in making up the one imposing central effect. And similarly, in the world of mind, many superior natures, in varying degrees, all contribute their share toward the maturing of that exceptional intellectual product whose topmost summit is genius."

There is left to some one yet a great opportunity in writing of George Eliot. Mathilde Blind has as much idea of the power and the scope of her genius as a wren might have of an eagle's flight.

Memoir of Annie Keary. By her Sister. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

THIS memoir possesses more than usual interest. Miss Keary's was not a life of much outward incident, but it was a beautiful, helpful, and happy life, and it is told in this little volume in a loving and sympathetic spirit. The early pages place before us a happy childhood in a delightful home—a wholly natural and at the same time an unusual life. Her active and imaginative mind was fertile in childish devices; and one can very well understand the complaint of her nurse: "Nurse Bream had borne with the elder children. It had been a hard struggle enough, but 'there was not one of them who ever had inventions such as Master Arthur and Miss Annie had'" (p. 9). It was these "inventions" of the child that were the seed of the well-drawn characters and scenes of the novelist. As to the healthy, if simple, food on which the young mind was fed, we have some suggestive words on page 22: "How the modern child would sneer at Mrs. Sherwood and her goody-goody tales! One sometimes wonders what the grown-up people of that generation would have thought of filling little heads with sensational stories of ragged London depravity, like those which do duty as Sunday books nowadays. But each age to its own liking."

Of Miss Keary's mature years we need say little. The admirers of her novels will be glad to meet here and there the account of a person or event that suggested such and such passages in them. A good deal of attention is given to her religious experience. She was the daughter of an Irish gentleman who, after serving through the Peninsular war, had become a clergyman and settled in Hull, where she was born in 1825. She had, as was natural, a strongly religious nature; but "in her youth Annie's thoughts had wandered from the old beaten tracks of religion in which she had been brought up, and she had then found relief for her difficulties in the teach-

ings of the Broad Church school of theology" (p. 130). Afterward she was drawn to the High Church, for reasons which are described on page 154: "It had been her natural shrinking from their hardness and cruelty that had first alienated her from the doctrines of the evangelical school: the want of patient human sympathy shown in them, and the pitiless punishment of the wicked ascribed by them to the Deity. In the Broad Church teachings she had found it a great relief to have condemnation narrowed and hope extended; yet, strange to say, within that very liberty a seed of cruelty had hidden which, springing up by and by, seemed likely to choke the wholesome air." This seed of cruelty—the passage is too long to give at length—is found in the "easy confidence that all must be well with everybody in another state of existence," the undervaluing of "supernatural graces," etc. The story of this spiritual life—in whatever degree one may sympathize with its several phases—is one of absorbing interest.

*A Handbook of English and American Literature, Historical and Critical, with Illustrations of the Writings of each Successive Period.* By Esther J. Trimble. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother. 1883.

*Landmarks of English Literature.* By Henry J. Nicoll. D. Appleton & Co. 1883.

Of many recent volumes upon English literature, this 'Handbook' is one of the most remarkable as an illustration of what is to be taught in public schools. It is complete in its scope. It covers the ground on which English literature has flourished from the regions where Baldur ruled over the city founded by Odin "at the historic date 70 B. C.," to those where the Indians are now roving; it begins with "the earliest Celtic poets recorded in history—Ossian, Merlin, and Taliesin"—of whom the two latter "probably lived in the mythical period of Arthur"; but, as the narrative goes on, it becomes less exhaustive of the facts, is in the middle notably deficient, and at the end compensates for this by including a host of books known only to publishers' catalogues. In style it is by turns tropical and frigid. In criticism and information it is alike deficient. Of the influence of classical learning, for example, there is little said except that "the grave of the last writers of antiquity became the cradle of modern literature." It is needless, however—it would, indeed, be impossible—to point out its defects in detail. A few citations will suffice to show its crudity, inanity, and tawdriness. Of Swift, it speaks "as a willing dependant on the charity of others"; and of 'Gulliver's Travels,' it can say only that, "rid of its coarse features, it becomes for children a charming story of pigmies and giants." Addison, on the other hand, "had a 'message' to the world"; "Keats, with Miltonic tread, was more purely sensuous"—but we forbear. One sentence is really adequate, a naïve definition of the metaphysical poets as "a class who carry out a train of thought further than their readers wish to follow." The volume is strikingly patriotic; in the American portion, although it is true that nothing important is much dwelt on, nothing insignificant has been omitted. Thirty-five ministers are credited with contributions to our young literature since 1800; and space is found for the history of Indian missions and the geography of Western States. Praise is not spared: Drake outranks Keats in fancy, and older and forgotten authors are assigned novel positions in the temple of Fame; but Mr. Howells's books, written "in a style of great excellence," to be sure, are commended only as being "so accurate that they serve as guide-books in travel," and Mr. James is more briefly dismissed

as a producer of "many magazine stories." The quotations that interleave the text are selected without discrimination. In short, there is in the whole no literary insight, critical judgment, or skill in arrangement to be discerned. The scholars who are condemned to study this volume will learn as much English literature from it as they would of rhetoric from a pocket dictionary.

Mr. Nicoll has not undertaken to write a manual, dictionary, or history of English literature, but, as he states in his preface, he aims to supply information and criticism to the ordinary reader regarding those English authors whose works are valuable to a modern busy man. The antiquarian portion—no inconsiderable part of the subject as now taught—he dispenses with at once, and begins with Chaucer. He passes briefly over the earlier good prose authors and poets, and devotes most of his space to later times, including our own age, which he treats at length. In all nearly two hundred names are mentioned, and the selection is in general admirable. He has not hesitated to avail himself of the profuse material offered to a compiler in the biographical and critical productions of recent years; in fact, he has woven his book of liberal quotations, and tried rather to compress the best existing literature on the subject than to give original work. He is familiar with this literature, and reduces the researches of the Chaucer and Shakspeare scholars, for example, and the essays or books of Arnold, Leslie Stephen, Minto, Morley, Saintsbury, Lowell, and critics of that order, with skill and justice. His volume is therefore a very useful compendium of the laborious study which the best minds have expended on our literature in the last thirty years; and it is, besides, written in a pleasing and simple style, of greater correctness than is found in most of what pass for good books. The concluding chapter on magazines is a very compact statement of many facts not elsewhere to be found gathered together, so far as we know. In some particulars it would be easy to justify a difference from the conclusions the author reaches, as in the relative sins of Addison and Pope in their famous quarrel, and such minor points; but in these cases either side may be taken. So, too, the Edinburgh reviewers seem of more consequence to him than to us. As a whole, however, the volume may safely be trusted as having the weight of the best authority both for facts and opinions.

*The Epic of Kings. Stories Retold from Firdusi by Helen Zimmern.* With a Prefatory Poem by Edmund W. Gosse. Henry Holt & Co. 1883. 12mo, pp. xlvii+339.

THESE heroic stories are retold not from the Persian, but from Mohl's complete French version of the 'Shah Nameh,' and of course greatly abridged. In length as well as in beauty Firdusi's Epic is truly Oriental; the curtailment has, however, been performed with skill, and the figures stand out in bold relief amid fresh and poetical scenes, doughty Rustem above all, with whose death Miss Zimmern wisely concludes her narrative. Nor is the native note absent—the tragic wail of Iran's antique history, which succeeds to hymns of victory as fatally as night to day. These episodes are well grouped, and all attractive reading; yet, even admitting the writer's easy method of reduction from the French, the book does scant justice to the Persian poet at whose expense it is made. If plastic verse is the gift of the few, there is many a picturesque modern idiom without recurring to what Miss Zimmern is pleased to name "the simple language of the age of Shakspeare and the English Bible," a prose far more remarkable for its penurious syn-

tax than for the Shaksperian mark. To eyes accustomed to view the Orient through the medium of King James's Version, this labored simplicity may have the charm of appropriateness; but to enjoy it fully one must possess the easy unconcern of the young in questions of literary individuality. If, however, the book was intended for youthful readers, it is a pity that some grave problems were not left out of the Introduction, to which, moreover, Miss Zimmern gives no satisfactory answer.

It is hardly accurate to place the Shah Nameh on a plane with the 'Nibelungen Lied' and the 'Iliad.' The 'Book of Kings' was a work of art, not of faith, and the poet steps from behind the masses of his heroes simply to glory in his verse and boast that he has "weeded out the garden" of story. To wonder "how completely the Musulman Firdusi has apprehended" the old Persian religion will only occur to one little acquainted with the latter. It is enough for Firdusi's fame that with a poet's divination he cleared from out the ruins of old Iran the pure gold of the legend and fashioned it anew. As to the inner meaning of the "stories," the few suggestions barely quoted are either trite or wanting in directness. Linguistic comparison has proved to a certainty that the epic struggle—at least in the cycle of Jamshid and Zohak—is nothing but the Iranian version of a favorite Aryan conceit: the fair powers of light defending man's cause and their own against the demons of darkness.

Our book has, otherwise, the singular merit of being the only presentation of the Persian Epic in recent English. The abridged translation of the 'Shah Nameh' by J. Atkinson (1832) is now out of print, and, of single parts, the tale of Rustem and Sohrab alone has found in the verses of Matthew Arnold a treatment worthy of its poetical beauty. Other languages are richer, and those concerned in getting a closer likeness of the original will find, among others, in the graceful German hexameters of A. F. von Schack ('Epische Dichtungen,' 2 vols., 1833) a literal and graphic version of the very episodes barely sketched in these pages. The complete French version is in bright and fluent prose, but less available on account of its length ('Le Livre des Rois,' 7 vols., 12mo, the last published in 1878).

#### BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Chelsea Householder. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.  
 Arncliffe, E. Lectures on Painting, delivered to the Students of the Royal Academy. Trübner & Co.  
 Bishop, J. R. Commentaries on the Law of Statutory Crimes. Second edition, rewritten and enlarged. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.  
 Brassey, Sir T. On Work and Wages. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.  
 Brekin's Thierleben. Parts 71-76. R. Westermann & Co.  
 Corning, Dr. J. L. Brain Rest. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.  
 Foster, Mary Hallock. The Led Horse Claim: a Romance of a Mining Camp. Boston: J. H. Osgood & Co.  
 Fothergill, Dr. J. M. The Maintenance of Health: a Medical Work for Lay Readers. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 60 cents.  
 Freeman, F. A. Some Impressions of the United States. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.50.  
 Froude, J. A. Letters and Memorials of Jane Welsh Carlyle. Harper & Bros.  
 Gregory, E. S. Lenore, and Other Poems: Original and Translated. Lynchburg, Va.: J. P. Bell & Co.  
 Hall, S. C. Retrospect of a Long Life: from 1815 to 1883. D. Appleton & Co.  
 Hardy, A. S. But Yet a Woman: a Novel. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.  
 Harv, A. J. C. Cities of Southern Italy and Sicily. Geo. Routledge & Sons. \$2.50.  
 Hawthorne, N. Our Old Home, and English Note-books. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$4.  
 Hicks, L. E. A Critique of Design-Arguments: A Historical Review and Free Examination of the Methods of Reasoning in Natural Theology. Chas. Scribner's Sons. \$2.  
 Holmes, O. W. Medical Essays. 1842-1892. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$2.  
 Lewis, D. In a Nutsell. Suggestions to American College Students. Clarke Bros.  
 Living English Poets. MDCCCLXXXII. Boston: Roberts Bros. \$2.  
 Loomis, L. C. The Index Guide to Travel and Art-Study in Europe. New ed. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$3.50.  
 Maydon, F. The Story of Mellicent. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 10 cents.  
 McCosh, Rev. J. Development: What It Can Do, and What It Cannot Do. Charles Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.  
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